DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 342 248 FL 020 109

TITLE	Handbook for Teaching Korean-American Students.
INSTITUTION	California State Dept. of Education, Sacramento. Bilingual Education Office.
SPONS AGENCY	Office of Bilingual Education and Minority Languages Affairs (ED), Washington, DC.
REPORT NO	ISBN-0-8011-0986-8
PUB DATE	92
NOTE	194p.
AVAILABLE FROM	Bureau of Publications, Sales Unit, California Department of Education, P.O. Box 271, Sacramento, CA 95812-0271 ($4.50; California residents add tax).
PUB TYPE	Guides - Classroom Use - Teaching Guides (For Teacher) (052)
EDRS PRICE	MF01 Plus Postage. PC Not Available from EDRS.
DESCRIPTORS	*Bilingual Education; Classroom Techniques; Cross Cultural Training; Cultural Context; Cultural Differences; *Educational Attitudes; Educational Resources; Educational Strategies; Elementary Secondary Education; *Immigrants; *Korean Americans; Language Patterns; *Language Role; Literacy Education; Second Language Instruction; *Sociocultural Patterns

ABSTRACT

This handbook is designed for teachers, administrators, and other school personnel. It provides an explanation of the sociocultural and linguistic characteristics of Korean-Americans so educators can address their needs more effectively and orchestrate a better teaching environment by understanding and supporting the Korean-American cultural heritage. The first chapter provides background information to help readers understand Koreans' experiences in Korea and patterns of immigration to the United States. The second chapter describes educational and sociocultural factors in the Korean language group, focusing on Korean educational traditions and patterns, language experience in the Korean-American community, and key interpersonal relationships in the Korean-American culture. Chapter 3 details some Korean linguistic characteristics and their relationship to culture. Instructional and curricular strategies for this population are outlined in the fourth chapter, with attention given to the role of bilingualism, factors in language development, transfer of literacy, language program planning, and reading instruction. A glossary and an annotated bibliography of general references and Korean literature and language materials are also presented. Appended materials include a ranking of California school districts by Korean-American enrollment; lists of educational and cultural resources; and a list of Korean holidays, ceremonies, and festivals. (MSE)

****
* Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made *
* from the original document. *
****

ED342248

Handbook for Teaching Korean-American Students

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
Office of Educational Research and Improvement
EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)

☑ This document has been reproduced as received from the person or organization originating it

☐ Minor changes have been made to improve reproduction quality

● Points of view or opinions stated in this document do not necessarily represent official OERI position or policy

FL 020 109

CALIFORNIA DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
Bill Honig, State Superintendent of Public Instruction
Sacramento, 1992

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Handbook for Teaching Korean-American Students

Developed by the
Bilingual Education Office
California Department of Education

Publishing Information

This handbook was funded in part with funds from the Office of Bilingual Education and Minority Languages Affairs, U.S. Department of Education. The opinions expressed herein do not, however, necessarily reflect the position or policy of the U.S. Department of Education, and no official endorsement by the U.S. Department of Education should be inferred. The document was developed by the Bilingual Education Office, California Department of Education. The final draft of the manuscript was edited by Janet Lundin of the Bureau of Publications, working in cooperation with Daniel D. Holt of the Bilingual Education Office. The handbook was prepared for photo-offset production by the staff of the Bureau of Publications, with design for the interior and cover by Cheryl Shawver McDonald, who also set the publication in PageMaker; and typesetting by Jeannette Huff. The document was published by the Department; printed by the Office of State Printing; and distributed under the provisions of the Library Distribution Act and *Government Code* Section 11096.

Copyright © 1992 by the California Department of Education

Copies of this publication are available for $4.50 each, plus sales tax for California residents, from the Bureau of Publications, Sales Unit, California Department of Education, P.O. Box 271, Sacramento, CA 95812-0271.

A list of other publications available from the Department of Education is shown on page 177.

ISBN 0-8011-0986-8

About the Cover

The chrysanthemum was chosen for the cover because of the flower's popularity in Korean literature, art, and daily life. Like their neighbors in China and Japan, Koreans regard the chrysanthemum as symbolic of virtues that one develops through education and self-discipline. Koreans believe that chrysanthemums represent the harmony that should be maintained between nature and humanity and the loyalty that binds one to others. In the art of the Koryo Kingdom (A.D. 918–1392), the chrysanthemum often appears as it does on the cover—as wild and single blooms, gracing with their simple beauty the mysterious bluish-green celadon of the period. Koreans use the chrysanthemum for adorning architectural works, pottery, and furniture and during decorating celebrations and ceremonies.

The design for the chrysanthemum was taken from *Korean Motifs 2: Floral Patterns*. Edited by Ahn Sang-Soo. Seoul: Ahn Graphics and Book Publishers, 1987.

Contents

Page

Foreword vii
Preface viii
Acknowledgments x
Note to Readers xiii

Chapter I. Background of Korean Americans in California 1

Emergence of Korea 2
Historical Overview 3
  Early History 3
  Three Kingdoms Period 3
  Koryo Kingdom 5
  Chosun Kingdom 6
  Japanese Colonial Period 8
  Two Koreas 9
Political Developments in South Korea 11
History of Korean Immigration 12
  Early Twentieth Century Immigration Patterns 13
  Mid-Twentieth Century Immigration Patterns 14
  Late Twentieth Century Immigration Patterns 14
Reasons for Korean Immigration 15
  Educational Opportunity 16
  Economic Improvement 16
  Family Reunion 17
Koreans Residing in Other Countries 19
Selected References 19

Chapter II. Educational and Sociocultural Factors Concerning the Korean Language Group 21

Koreans in Korea 21
  Educational Factors in Korea 21
  Education in Korea and California 25
  Attitudes of Korean Parents 29
  Language Education in Korea 30
  Cross-cultural Differences in Classroom Behavior 34
  Role of English in Korea 35

Page

Koreans in California 39
  Language Experiences of Korean Americans 40
  Staff Resources in Korean-American Communities 44
Key Relationships for Korean Americans 47
  The Parent-Child Relationship 47
  The Educator-Student Relationship 52
  The Parent-Educator Relationship 55
Selected References 59

Chapter III. Linguistic Characteristics of the Korean Language 62

Origin of the Korean Language 62
Relationship of Korean to Chinese and Japanese 63
Dialectal Differences 64
General Remarks on the Korean Language 65
  Differences Between Korean and English Grammar 65
  Differences Between Korean and English Syntax 71
  Phonology and Phonetics in Korean and English 74
Han-gul: The Korean Writing System 85
Interrelationships Between Language and Culture 87
  Influences of Confucian Values 87
  Honorific Speech Patterns 89
  Customs of Offering and Declining 91
  Use of Questions for Koreans 92
  The Meaning of Korean Names 93
  Demeanor in Korean Behavior 94
  Other Nonverbal Behaviors 95
Selected References 97

Chapter IV. Recommended Instructional and Curricular Strategies for Language Development 98

The Goal of Bilingualism 98
Diversity of Students 100
Communicative-Based Approach 101
Factors in Language Development 103
  Visual Skills 104
  Sensorimotor Coordination 104
  Command of Spoken Korean 105
  Knowledge of Concepts 106
  Social Skills 107
  Motivation to Learn to Read and Write 108

Page

Role of Literature 108
Transfer of Literacy 110
  Transferability of *Han-gul* 110
  Conventions of the Written Page 110
  Reading for Meaning 111
Planning a Korean Language Program 112
  Setting the Goals 113
  Identifying the Students 114
  Developing Instructional Resources 114
  Achieving Goals and Policies 115
Designing Instructional Programs 115
Introduction of English Instruction 116
Reading in Two Languages 118
  Learning to Read Korean Followed by English 118
  Learning to Read in Korean and English Simultaneously 119
  Learning to Read English Followed by Korean 120
  Learning in Two-way Programs 121
  Learning in English-only Programs 121
  Supplementing the English-only Program 123
Summarizing the Program Designs 124
Selected References 124

Glossary 128

Bibliography 132

Suggested Readings 132
  General Information 132
  History and Politics 133
  Culture and Society 134
  Business and Finance 136
  Immigration History and Korean-American Life 138
Korean Literature 141
  Primary Grades (Kindergarten Through Grade Three) 141
  Upper Grades (Grades Four Through Six) 142
  Secondary Grades (Grades Seven Through Twelve) 143
Korean Language Materials 145

Appendix A. Districts Ranked by Enrollment of Limited-English-Proficient Students Who Speak Korean 149

Page

Appendix B. Educational and Cultural Resources 152

Teaching Materials 152
Films and Videos 156
Bilingual Materials and Resources 158
Language Programs 159
Bookstores 164
Community and Social Welfare Organizations 165
Media 168
Language Schools 170
Educational and Cultural Associations and Institutions 170
Korean Government Agencies 172
Travel and Study Opportunities 173

Appendix C. Holidays, Ceremonies, and Festivals 174

Foreword

A survey taken during the 1989–90 school year revealed that 33,567 students in California used Korean as their primary home language ("DATA/BICAL Report 90-2").[1] Approximately 13,389 (40 percent) of those students were identified as limited-English proficient (LEP). This publication, *A Handbook for Teaching Korean-American Students*, was developed to help educators provide the best educational opportunities for Korean-American students.

Because of a dramatic increase in the size of the Korean community in California and the effect of this increase on the state's educational system, teachers and administrators must have adequate knowledge of the language and cultural background of Korean-American students. This knowledge can help educators facilitate the scholastic performance of language-minority students. With the information in this handbook, school district personnel should be able to design and implement effective instructional programs that address the specific needs of Korean-American students.

Included in the handbook is information on the unique historical, sociocultural, and linguistic characteristics of Korean-American students. The handbook also provides information about educational resources, such as community organizations, public agencies, and classroom instructional materials. We in the Department are pleased to have been involved in the development of this handbook. We believe that it and handbooks for other language groups will make an important contribution to the improvement of educational services for language-minority students.

Bill Honig

State Superintendent of Public Instruction

---

[1] "DATA/BICAL Report 90-2." Sacramento: California Department of Education, 1990.

Preface

This handbook was developed as part of the Asian and Minority Language Group Project in the Bilingual Education Office, California Department of Education. The project was designed to assist school districts in providing effective bilingual education services to language-minority students, and the Project Team was given as its major activity the development of handbooks for a number of Asian and minority language groups. This handbook on Korean-American students is part of this project.

The purpose of these handbooks is to assist school personnel in understanding selected Asian and minority language groups. The handbooks were designed for use by bilingual education specialists as well as by administrators and teachers who have general responsibility for the education of language-minority students.

Chapters I and II of this handbook address general background issues regarding the Korean language group: information specific to the country, immigration history, educational background, and sociocultural factors. Chapters III and IV contain specific information regarding the Korean language and appropriate program services that will promote the academic achievement of Korean-American students.

This handbook is complemented by other publications developed by the Bilingual Education Office, including *Schooling and Language Minority Students: A Theoretical Framework*, which provides extensive information regarding bilingual education theory and practice; and *Beyond Language: Social and Cultural Factors in Schooling Language Minority Students*, which examines the influence of culture on the education of language-minority students.[1]

The analyses and illustrations in these publications are not specific to particular language groups. Rather, they provide a way of conceptualizing and organizing appropriate program services on the basis of a program's goals, available resources, community background factors, and student characteristics.

---

[1] Information regarding these publications is available from the Evaluation, Dissemination, and Assessment Center, California State University, Los Angeles, 5151 State University Drive, Los Angeles, CA 90032.

It is difficult in one publication to depict the uniqueness and heterogeneity that characterize any language group. The reader should recognize that, as are all language groups, Korean Americans are complex and diverse, with individual members and generations having a variety of characteristics and needs based on different experiences in Korea and America. Generalized descriptions of Korean Americans in this handbook, therefore, may not accurately characterize every Korean American because individual variation within general cultural and linguistic patterns is an inevitable aspect of human behavior. Continued research and development will be required to understand the patterns of language-minority groups for adapting to living in the United States and ways in which educators can facilitate the process.

SALLY MENTOR
Deputy Superintendent,
Curriculum and Instructional
Leadership Branch

DAVID P. DOLSON
Manager, Bilingual Education
Office

Acknowledgments

This handbook was written with the assistance of many dedicated individuals. John Finn, Consultant, Oakland, California, wrote chapters I and II and the section on culture in Chapter III.[1] Mr. Finn also reviewed the entire manuscript and provided many helpful suggestions. Kay Richards and Clare (Chungbin) You, Lecturers, Department of East Asian Languages, University of California, Berkeley, wrote the section on Korean language in Chapter III. They also provided many useful comments on other parts of the manuscript. Daniel D. Holt, Consultant, Bilingual Education Office, California Department of Education, wrote Chapter IV, and was the principal editor.

Two people devoted significant time and energy to review all parts of the manuscript and to make detailed suggestions that greatly strengthened the content: Chang-Ho Kim, doctoral candidate, University of the Pacific, Stockton, California; and Won-Kyung Kim, Principal, Korean Language School, The Korean Baptist Church of Stockton. They were consulted on numerous occasions regarding the Korean language, culture, and educational system. They also typeset the Korean script for Chapter III.

The writers also received assistance from James Robinson, Professor, St. Cloud State University, St. Cloud, Minnesota; and Louis Spaventa, Professor, Guilford College, Greensboro, North Carolina. Their extensive experience with Koreans in Korea and in the United States enabled them to offer many significant suggestions that improved the accuracy and comprehensiveness of the chapters.

Staff of the Bilingual Education Office, California Department of Education, also provided expert assistance: William Adorno, Manager; David P. Dolson, Manager; and Van Le, Consultant. Colleagues in the California Department of Education also assisted by reviewing parts of the manuscript: Mary Barr, Director, California Literature Project, San Diego; and Fred Dobb and Mae Gundlach, Consultants, Language Arts and Foreign Languages Unit.

---

[1] The titles listed in the acknowledgments were current when this document was developed.

The following individuals reviewed the manuscript and contributed many suggestions that improved the accuracy and comprehensiveness of the content.

Haruo Aoki, Professor, University of California, Berkeley

Lenore Kim Blank, Resource Teacher, San Francisco Unified School District

Harold Chu, Professor, George Mason University, Fairfax, Virginia

Kook-Chin Chung, Deputy Education Attache, Korean Consulate General, Los Angeles

Randy Grant, Teacher, Los Angeles Unified School District

Song Hahn, Teacher, Elk Grove Unified School District

Grace D. Holt, Consultant, Sacramento

Kyung-Duk Huh, Consul and Education Attache, Korean Consulate General, Los Angeles

Byung Jhung, Teacher, Los Angeles Unified School District

Chin Kim, Coordinator, Los Angeles Unified School District

Grace Kim, Teacher, Davis Joint Unified School District

Jung Hae Kim, Adviser, Los Angeles Unified School District

Oaksook Kim, Coordinator, Center for Pacific Rim Studies, University of California, Los Angeles

Susie Kim, Teacher, Bellagio Newcomer Center, Los Angeles Unified School District

Young-Key Kim-Renaud, Associate Professor, East Asian Languages and Literature, George Washington University, Washington, D.C.

Shelly Kwok, Bilingual Coordinator, Los Angeles Unified School District

Howard Kwon, Teacher, ABC Unified School District, Cerritos; Principal, Cerritos Korean Community School

John Lee, Counselor, Los Angeles Unified School District

Gloria Levin, Assistant Principal, Office of the Los Angeles County Superintendent of Schools

Suzie Oh, Assistant Principal, Los Angeles Unified School District

Kee Duk Paik, Adviser, Los Angeles Unified School District

Myong-Ja Paik, Teacher, Los Angeles Unified School District

Clara Park, Associate Professor, California State University, Northridge

Sung-Min Park, Assistant Manager, Korean Air, Seoul, Korea

Young Ae Park, Adviser, Los Angeles Unified School District

Adeline Shoji, Bilingual Coordinator, Los Angeles Unified School District

Mary Lee Shon, former Adviser, Los Angeles Unified School District

Hyung Kee Sun, former Consul and Education Attache, Korean Consulate General, Los Angeles

Jong Pyo (Grace) Yoon, Principal, Wilton Place Elementary School, Los Angeles Unified School District

Note to Readers

This handbook was designed for use by administrators, teachers, and other instructional personnel. The contents provide an explanation of the sociocultural and linguistic characteristics of Korean Americans so that educators will be able to address more effectively the needs of Korean students in this country. On the basis of this information, educators will be better able to orchestrate a favorable environment so that the students can develop an appreciation of their language and cultural heritage and succeed in their academic subjects.

Summaries entitled "Implications" have been inserted at the end of major sections of the text to underscore the relevance and applicability of information presented. These summaries provide practical suggestions for educators and parents in support of the education of Korean-American students. In addition, the objectives of each of the chapters of this handbook are listed as follows.

Chapter I. Background of Korean Americans in California

Material in this chapter should help school personnel to:

1. Understand general factors related to Koreans' experiences in Korea.
2. Understand the pattern of Korean-American immigration to the United States.

Chapter II. Educational and Sociocultural Factors Concerning the Korean Language Group

Material in this chapter should help school personnel to:

1. Develop continuity in the immigrating students' education by learning about the Korean educational system and the roles of students, teachers, and parents in the system.
2. Improve the participation of parents and the Korean community by learning about Koreans' attitudes toward schooling.
3. Develop effective strategies for recruiting Korean staff through an understanding of the educational background of Korean Americans.

4. Develop effective curricular and instructional approaches by learning how educators in Korea deal with literacy and language arts.
5. Improve English instruction by learning about experiences that students have with English in Korea.
6. Promote Korean language development by learning how Korean is reinforced in the home and the community in California.
7. Improve academic performance by learning the role of the Korean language in formal schooling contexts.

Chapter III. Linguistic Characteristics of the Korean Language

Material in this chapter should help school personnel to:

1. Create Korean language development activities by learning more about the linguistic aspects of Korean.
2. Improve English language instruction by learning some of the similarities and differences between English and Korean and the cultural assumptions reflected in each language.

Chapter IV. Recommended Instructional and Curricular Strategies for Korean Language Development

Material in this chapter should help school personnel to:

1. Understand the importance of bilingualism in promoting cognitive development, academic achievement, and occupational attainment.
2. Improve instruction in Korean and English by learning the theoretical bases for language acquisition.
3. Improve instruction in Korean and English by learning how to facilitate the students' experiences with both languages in the school and community.

Glossary and Appendix

Material in these sections should help the school staff to:

1. Use terms that are associated with the Korean language and become aware of educational services that support its use.
2. Select materials necessary for language arts and other curricular areas.
3. Share information with other districts in California by knowing where Korean-American students are concentrated.
4. Develop constructive relationships with community organizations, media services, and other resources related to curriculum and instruction.

CHAPTER I

Background of Korean Americans in California

In recent years the people of Korea have experienced a series of dramatic transformations, events that have also profoundly affected the relationship between the United States and Korea. This century has seen the end of Korea's last dynasty, Japan's occupation of Korea for 36 years of colonial rule, the division of the country at the end of World War II, and a devastating civil war between the partitioned halves. Since the 1960s the Republic of Korea (South Korea) has undergone significant political and economic changes, becoming one of the world's most rapidly industrializing countries and a major trading nation. On the other hand, the Democratic People's Republic of Korea (North Korea) remains a little-understood and highly authoritarian communist state with an underdeveloped economy.

Since the end of World War II and throughout Korea's recent evolution as a modern society, the United States has maintained an active role in events on the Korean peninsula. Today, the United States and South Korea are linked by political alliances, military treaties, commercial ties, and cultural and educational exchanges. The United States has not, however, established diplomatic relations with North Korea; and as a result all recent immigration of Koreans to the United States has been from South Korea. Therefore, the information in this handbook deals with issues pertaining to South Korea, even though the North and South share a common language and cultural heritage.

Emergence of Korea

South Korea has developed into a dynamic nation, bringing international attention to a part of the world that until the start of the Korean War was a remote corner of Asia ignored by the West. This development has come surprisingly quickly. South Korea's per capita gross national product (GNP) was $82 in 1961, but rose to $5,230 in 1990. Exports totaled $43 million in 1961. By 1986 South Korea's export total was $47.2 billion, and in that same year, South Korea registered its first trade surplus ("Major Economic Indicators," *Business Korea*, 1990). But now South Korea's GNP is larger than that of three-fourths of the world's nations. By the year 2000 South Korea, which is slightly larger than Indiana, will probably be the tenth largest world trader. South Korea is a major producer and exporter of cars, electronics, clothing, industrial machinery, ships, and steel. It is already America's seventh largest trading partner, with the United States purchasing approximately 35 percent of its exports.

With continued strong growth expected, South Korea has emerged as an internationally respected economic force, while North Korea, which is smaller than Mississippi, continues to be isolated politically and economically. Statistics on North Korea are difficult to verify, but estimates for 1984 put the per capita GNP at about $1,100, significantly less than that of South Korea (*The Europa Yearbook, 1987: A World Survey*, 1988).

The amazingly rapid and sustained economic growth of South Korea is only part of this country's story. Koreans possess a long and rich recorded history. Together with China and Japan, Korea has contributed to the evolution of civilization in Northeast Asia. Today, Koreans are eager to play an increasing role in world economics and politics. They want to be partners with other countries in Asia and throughout the world, yet they desire to refine and maintain the distinctiveness of their national and cultural identity.

While Korea has been achieving an enviable level of development, the level of Korean immigration to the United States has changed significantly. The Korean population in the United States has increased dramatically from a few hundred at the turn of the century to an estimated 650,000 in 1989 (*Statistical Yearbook of the Immigration and Naturalization Service, 1988*, 1989). It is estimated that at the beginning of the next century more than a million Korean Americans will be living in the United States and contributing to its society and economy. The largest portion of the increase has occurred in the past 25 years, and Korean Americans have begun to make their mark. In California Korean Americans participate vigorously in the economic and social life of the state, helping to expand small businesses, contributing to the professions, and demonstrating a significant commitment to education for their children.

This chapter provides an explanation of the historical influences that have contributed to the development of Korean culture and to the presence of Korean immigrants in California.

Historical Overview

The Korean peninsula juts out from the Northeast Asian mainland in a southerly direction for 621 miles (about 1,000 kilometers). The boundary to the north is largely formed by two rivers, the Yalu and the Tuman, which flow between Korea and China. Korea's location between China and Japan has permitted cultural influences to be shared among the three countries. Throughout Korea's long and fascinating history, and despite involvement with its Asian neighbors, the Korean people have maintained their ethnic homogeneity and pride in their special character.

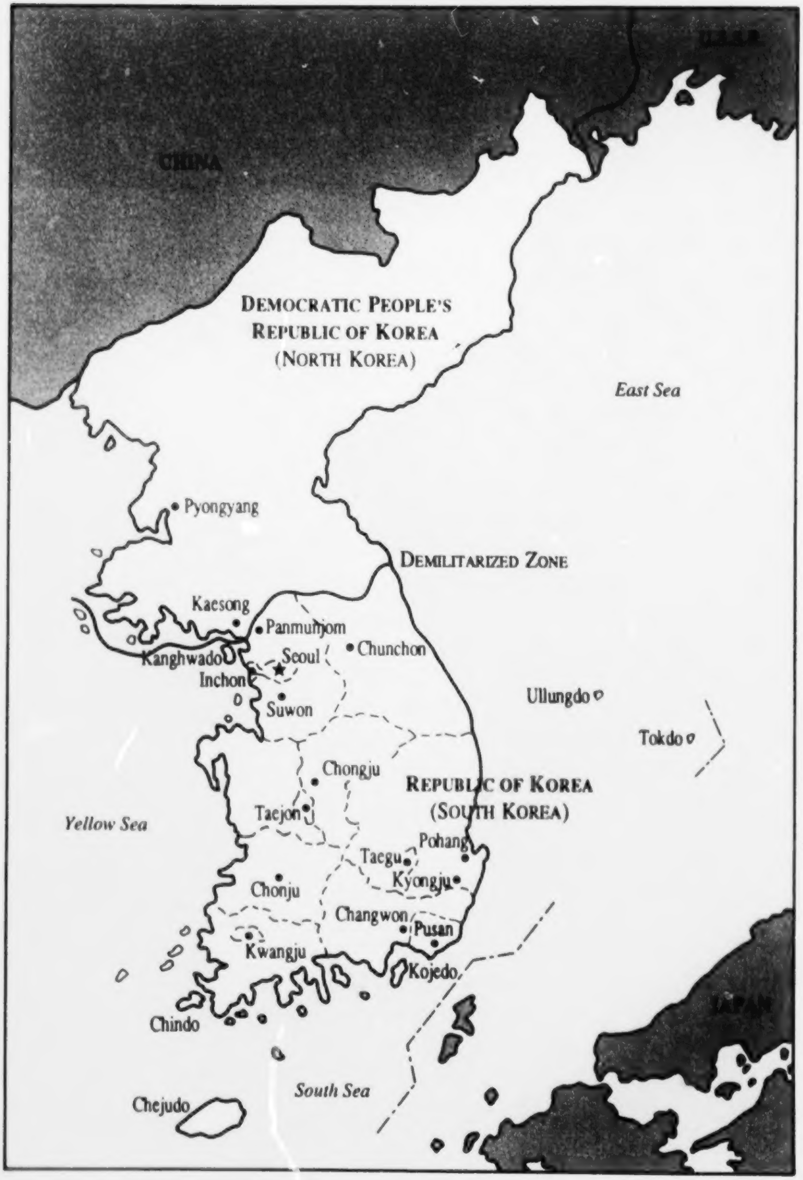
Early History

Koreans look back to unrecorded history for the story of their origin. It is said that in the year 2333 B.C. Tan-gun, half-divine, half-human, founded the nation from which all Koreans have descended. The story of Tan-gun, whether real or mythical, has given Koreans a sense of unity as a distinct people descended from a common ancestor.

Historical evidence indicates that Koreans, along with Turks and Mongols, originated in Inner Asia and that the Korean language shares many features with the Altaic language family that includes Turkish, Mongolian, and Japanese. This language family is not related to Chinese, although Korean does contain many Chinese-derived words and makes considerable use of Chinese characters.

Three Kingdoms Period

For centuries Koreans endeavored to sustain their autonomous cultural and political identity on the doorstep of China and more


CHINA
U.S.S.R.
DEMOCRATIC PEOPLE'S
REPUBLIC OF KOREA
(NORTH KOREA)
East Sea
Pyongyang
DEMILITARIZED ZONE
Kaesong
Panmunjom
Chunchon
Kanghwado
Seoul
Inchon
Suwon
Ullungdo
Tokdo
Chongju
REPUBLIC OF KOREA
(SOUTH KOREA)
Taejon
Yellow Sea
Pohang
Taegu
Kyongju
Chonju
Changwon
Pusan
Kwangju
Kojedo
JAPAN
Chindo
South Sea
Chejudo

Map of Korea

recently under the rule of the Japanese. The first formal historical records in Korea began in the Three Kingdoms Period, during which the Koguryo, Paekche, and Shilla monarchies reigned from the first century B.C. to the seventh century A.D.[1] China colonized part of the Korean peninsula from about 100 B.C. to about A.D. 313 and introduced its ideas of political centralization as well as its writing and technology. With the fall of the last Chinese colony in the fourth century, the three monarchies emerged as powers on the peninsula.

The three Korean kingdoms ruled the peninsula from the fourth to the seventh centuries A.D. Although politically separate, the kingdoms were related ethnically and linguistically. Over the centuries they maintained continuous contact, either in alliances with each other against China or at war with each other allied with China. During this period Buddhism arrived from China and spread rapidly among the elite classes of the three kingdoms. Monarchs of all three kingdoms patronized Buddhism and used its concepts and practices to bolster their power. Korean monks who had studied in China and India transmitted Buddhism, along with the arts it inspired, to Japan (Robinson, 1986).[2]

By A.D. 668, after a series of dynastic wars, the Shilla Kingdom had conquered all opponents and laid the foundation for a Korean nation-state. Differences among the three kingdoms diminished as their populations integrated. The early years of the Shilla Kingdom are known as Korea's Golden Age because of the creation of remarkable jewelry, pottery, and Buddhist relics still seen in the museums and temples around the ancient capital city of Kyongju. The Shilla Kingdom was overturned by Koryo (from which the English name *Korea* is derived).

Koryo Kingdom

During the period of the Koryo Kingdom, A.D. 918–1392, a civil service system was instituted, and laws were codified. In addition, Koreans perfected celadon, a porcelain with a unique blue-green glaze and ceramic inlay prized throughout East Asia. Celadon pieces, with their refined sophistication, remain as a witness to the skill and taste of the period. In 1234, two centuries before Gutenburg, a movable metal type began to be used for printing. And between 1237 and 1252, in another example of inventive spirit and Buddhist inspiration, Koreans carved the entire collection of Buddhist scriptures onto more than 80,000 wooden blocks for printing. Called the Tripitaka Koreana, these blocks are now on display at Haein Temple near the city of Taegu.

---

[1] A variety of systems have been developed for romanizing the Korean writing system, *han-gul*. Most of these methods are based on McCune-Reischauer, an internationally recognized system. This book uses a system that is adapted from McCune-Reischauer and from that used by the Korean government. Readers should refer to the charts in Chapter III for assistance in pronouncing romanized Korean in this handbook.

[2] See "Selected References" on page 19 for full bibliographical data.

Chosun Kingdom

In 1392 the Koryo Kingdom was replaced by the Chosun Kingdom (also known as the Yi Dynasty because the Yi family was the ruling family). To counter the dominant Buddhist belief system and to appropriate the great wealth Buddhist temples had accumulated, Yi rulers of the fifteenth century replaced Buddhism with Confucianism, which had been introduced centuries before but was now officially embraced by leaders of Chosun. Referred to as Neo-Confucianism, this stricter variation of Confucian ethics made filial piety the ultimate social virtue, stressing propriety in social relationships and requiring that ancestor worship be the most important religious ceremony in the household. The Chosun Kingdom redistributed land, expanded the aristocracy, and increasingly relied on the use of examinations for qualifying individuals for important positions.

By the Chosun period the civil service examination system had become the main avenue of recruitment for government office. Receiving government appointments and academic degrees as a result of high scores now conferred much more honor and political power on individuals and their families than did appointments to office based solely on status. Even high-level aristocrats struggled to do well on the examinations because success accorded access to the upper governmental ranks. The modern Korean emphasis on education and self-cultivation for social mobility continues from this Chosun influence. Then, as now, the educational system was geared to the examination system (Han, 1984).

Development of han-gul. *Han-gul*, the Korean alphabet, was invented in 1446 during the enlightened reign of King Sejong. Devised as an authentic written representation of spoken Korean, this new alphabet was created to spread literacy. Until the development of this scientifically structured script, Chinese characters (called *han-ja* by Koreans) had been employed for writing, and only scholars and the upper class had been properly trained in the complexities of these ideographs. Many classics of Korean literature were immediately translated into *han-gul* (which means literally "Korean script") to promote its acceptance, and agricultural manuals for peasant farmers and military texts were also written in *han-gul.*

Conflicts soon arose between those who associated Chinese characters with scholarly and prestigious literature and those who saw *han-gul* as a means for educating Koreans and modernizing the society. A compromise was eventually reached in which Chinese characters were used in conjunction with *han-gul* to write Korean. This has been the practice ever since; and although *han-gul* is easy to learn and is highly valued, Chinese characters have never lost their prestige (Han, 1984). Over the years Koreans have become immensely proud of this respected alphabet and commemorate its creation with a national holiday, *Han-gul* Day, on October 9. Internationally, *han-gul* is considered one of the most ingenious writing systems ever devised (Bartz, 1972). The development of a distinctive writing system is an excellent example of Koreans' pride in their uniqueness and their unwillingness to be subsumed by neighboring nations.

Effects of isolationism**.** During the 500 years of the Chosun Kingdom, efforts toward commerce and foreign trade were aimed at China, and contacts with other countries were largely discouraged. According to Confucian morality, money-making, especially through reinvestment, was frowned on. Koreans valued a life of letters over a life of enterprise. Although in theory China and Japan shared these values, in practice those societies encouraged commerce much more than Korea did (Robinson, 1986). Moreover, for centuries international trade was limited to exchanges of native products for luxury goods and to a restricted rice trade with Japan. When Japanese and Western traders arrived in the late nineteenth century, Korean rulers could envisage little advantage to opening their country to trade with other countries and so earned the country the nickname the Hermit Kingdom (Robinson, 1986). Korea did, however, permit Western missionaries to build churches, schools, and hospitals. The establishment of these earliest Western-initiated institutions in the late nineteenth century represented the first important contacts between Korea and the United States.

Entrenched in a Confucian and China-centered world view, the Chosun Kingdom was ill-prepared for devising strategies to deal with Western demands for diplomatic and trade relations and to meet the threat of a modernizing Japan. Korea emphasized its alliance with China, which was fighting for its own life against both Western imperialism and Japan and therefore could not help Korea. This decision became a fateful one because Korea's powerful neighbors began competing for control of the Korean peninsula, which was regarded as strategically important. During the Sino-Japanese War of 1894–95, Japan defeated China's forces. In 1904–05 the Russo-Japanese War produced another Japanese victory. These two successes left Japan the unchallenged military power in Northeast Asia, and Korea became vulnerable to Japan's desire for empire. This was not the first time that Japan had demonstrated an interest in Korea. During the last decade of the sixteenth century, the Japanese made two unsuccessful attempts to secure a foothold on the Asian mainland by invading Korea. But Korea, with the aid of China, had been able to push the Japanese back then. Now, at the beginning of the twentieth century, Korea could not hold off the new Japan, which saw control of the Korean peninsula as an important key to expanding into China.

Japanese Colonial Period

Ultimately, Japan's imperial policy to dominate Asia, coupled with its strategic and economic interests in Korea, led to Japan's expansion into Korea. The Chosun Kingdom fell in 1910, when Korea was formally annexed by Japan. Korea was occupied by Japan from 1910 through 1945, when World War II ended. This period is a bitter chapter in Korean history because of the harsh conditions that the Japanese imposed. For example, the Japanese seized Korean land, restricted educational opportunity, supressed political activity, and prohibited the use of the Korean language in public (Bartz, 1972). The Koreans' resentment toward Japanese policies during the colonial period remains today. Koreans believe that Japanese treatment was exploitative and extreme, if not inexcusable.

Colonial rule stimulated the growth of nationalism in Korea, particularly because Japan tried to subjugate Korea and also because

Koreans resented Japan's unwillingness to acknowledge their country's historical contributions to the development of Japanese civilization (Robinson, 1989). During the occupation Koreans founded an independence movement to oppose the Japanese presence. Koreans outside the country also established a government-in-exile in Shanghai, China. On March 1, 1919, Korean nationalists launched an uprising known as the *Sam-il* (March 1st) Movement, but the uprising was severely repressed, as were subsequent rebellions. Colonial authorities were afraid of and guarded against the strong nationalism of Koreans, especially among the intellectuals. The active role students were taking in the leadership of the independence movement became a precedent for the substantial influence that students have exerted on social and political events in South Korea since liberation (Oh, 1975). Student activism continues in modern Korea in the form of demonstrations and protests against a variety of national and international policies.

With the outbreak of World War II in Asia, Korea was forced to become an integral part of the Japanese war effort by serving as a source of raw materials and foodstuffs and as a military staging point. In addition, Koreans were conscripted into the Japanese Imperial Army. But the years of colonial domination were finally ended when World War II concluded and the Korean peninsula became independent.

Two Koreas

The defeat of the Japanese freed Korea from their rule, but an agreement between the United States and the Soviet Union diminished the exhilaration of liberation. The United States would accept the surrender of Japanese forces south of the 38th parallel, and the Soviets would do the same north of that line. This division of the country dealt a devastating blow to Korean nationalists, who were trying to help their country emerge as an independent and modern society. In 1947 the United Nations resolved to hold supervised general elections in both halves of the peninsula. North Korea rejected the offer, and the Soviet Union set up a communist regime in the north, known as the Democratic People's Republic of Korea. In 1948 a national election in the southern half of the Korean peninsula established the Republic of Korea. Between the end of World War II and the beginning of the Korean War, two million refugees made their way from the north into South Korea (Han, 1984).

The United States reduced its troop levels in South Korea in June, 1949, when the U.S. government declared that South Korea was no longer within the shield of U.S. defenses. On June 25, 1950, North Korea launched a massive invasion against the relatively undefended Republic of Korea. The reaction of the United Nations was swift. Sixteen United Nations members, including the United States, committed forces that joined in the Korean War until an armistice was finally negotiated in 1953.

The Korean peninsula was ravaged by the war. Casualties from the Republic of Korea were estimated at 1,313,836, including about 1,000,000 civilians. North Korean casualties were set at 520,000 while those from the People's Republic of China totaled 900,000. U.N. forces lost approximately 187,000 killed and some 800,000 wounded (*History of U.N. Forces in Korea*, 1977). An estimated 54,246 U.S. soldiers died during the conflict ("The Forgotten War," *U.S. News and World Report*, 1990).

The devastation that resulted from the three-year struggle meant that recovery would be long and arduous. Furthermore, the intense hostility caused by the division of the country and the subsequent war continue to divide the two sides and impose immense financial burdens on the two countries because of the need to maintain large defense establishments. The division also subjects both countries to considerable emotional strain because both sides intensely desire to reunify the country. Discussions between the two Koreas regarding reunification began in 1972 and continue to be held sporadically.

Issues of security and the question of reunification have a disquieting effect on many people who are unsure of North Korea's commitment to peaceful dialogue. South Korea and North Korea have two of the world's largest armies, which continue to oppose each other at the 38th parallel. Koreans still face the agony of trying to reunite families that were torn apart because of the dislocation created by the division of the country and the Korean War 40 years ago. The presence of American military personnel stationed in South Korea demonstrates the importance that the U.S. government places on maintaining peace in this region of the world.

Since 1990 a series of important developments have increased the contact between representatives of the two countries. Prime ministers of the two Koreas have held three meetings; direct import and export activity has been initiated; and athletic and artistic exchanges have taken place. Although these events are unprecedented, the countries have far to go to achieve the trust needed for addressing the significant problems that divide the two Koreas.

Political Developments in South Korea

Under its first president, Princeton-educated Syngman Rhee, the Republic of Korea lacked the economic discipline and the political consensus necessary to achieve successful development. In 1960 Rhee's government was overthrown, and after more than a year of political chaos involving the Yun Po-sun government, General Park Chung Hee led a military coup and claimed control of the government in May, 1961.[3]

Park won the presidency as a civilian candidate in 1963. He oversaw the dramatic economic development and significant military buildup of the country until his assassination in 1979. However, the years of his administration saw consolidation of central government authority and considerable political controversy, including the decision in 1964 to normalize diplomatic relations with Japan, the declaration of martial law in 1972, and frequent student demonstrations against violations of human rights.

Martial law was once again declared in 1980 to thwart student unrest and political instability; but President Choi Kyu-hah, who had assumed leadership after the death of Park, could not control the situation. His resignation brought on the election of former general Chun Doo Hwan as president. During the eight years of Chun's rule, economic development was considerable, but political opposition and demands for democratic reforms grew. Chun was succeeded by former general Roh Tae Woo, who won the presidency in November, 1987, after dramatically offering to change the constitution to allow for presidential elections by direct vote. This election was the first such direct vote in 16 years and the first constitutional transfer of presidential authority in postwar South Korea.

Although the Republic of Korea enters the 1990s with considerable economic accomplishments, many domestic and international issues remain. Population growth and economic expansion have created a housing shortage as more and more people move from the provinces to the major cities. The high population density causes severe traffic and urban planning problems. Dramatic movements to democratize the political system are challenging traditional practices at every level of the society. The National Assembly, where legislative power is vested, now has an important and vocal opposition faction; university students continue to represent a potent force for change; and Korean companies are undergoing major restructuring as they respond to increased international competition and domestic pressures from a highly educated work force. Policies for trade and continued economic expansion are critical to a country that depends heavily on an export-based economy.

---

[3] Koreans normally write their surnames (family names) first, then their given names; for example, Park (surname), Chung Hee (given name). While there is some variation of this convention among Korean Americans, this handbook will use the surname-first system for consistency unless a widely accepted standard already exists; for example, Syngman Rhee.

History of Korean Immigration

This section presents patterns in Korean immigration to the United States during the early, middle, and late twentieth century. In 1903 about 100 Koreans immigrated to Hawaii. However, throughout the

Implications Regarding Korean History

Koreans have an impressive tradition of education, scientific invention, and artistic expression. These accomplishments were shaped by a history that did not include any significant contact with Western culture until the late 1800s. But Korea played an important role in the history of Asia and in the development of Asian culture through interaction with China and Japan over the centuries. An essential element of Korea's cultural heritage involves Korean experience with the highly centralized Confucian orientation, which is a tradition more deeply rooted in scholarship and cultural advancement than in economic development. During the twentieth century Korea has been victimized by geopolitical conflicts, the most notable of which was its division by the superpowers. But South Korea has managed to create a modernized country that is now recognized for its rapid development, and Koreans can feel justifiably proud of this stunning accomplishment. To sustain this success, however, Koreans must address the sensitive issue of national reunification and the pressure for continued political and economic reforms.

rest of the twentieth century, the number of Koreans immigrating to the United States has increased dramatically.

Early Twentieth Century Immigration Patterns

The existence of a Korean community in the United States dates back to the early 1900s, when the first Korean immigrants arrived. For Koreans to leave their homeland was not an easy decision, but circumstances in Korea at the turn of the century had caused significant dislocation in Korean society. Severe famine, political instability, and social unrest left much of the population in dire poverty and desperation (B.L.C. Kim, 1988). Choy Bong Youn indicates that the very first group of Korean immigrants, consisting of 55 males, 21 females, and 25 children, sailed for Hawaii on January 13, 1903. The males were farmers who had agreed to work in the sugar cane fields as contract laborers. During the brief period between 1903 and 1905, there were 7,226 Korean immigrants (including 637 women and 541 children) who arrived on 65 ships (Choy, 1979).

When Japan unofficially occupied Korea in 1905 and assumed jurisdiction over Korea's relations with foreign nations, Korean immigration to America was suspended. The Japanese government did not want Korean immigrants to compete with Japanese workers already in Hawaii and also wanted large pools of cheap Korean labor available to carry out Japanese expansionist programs in Korea (Yun, 1977).

Between 1910 and 1924 about 1,100 picture brides came to the United States to marry Korean men.[4] But after 1906 other Korean immigrants were mainly small numbers of students and political exiles (Lyu, 1977). Among these students and exiles were those who would lead Korean independence movements in Hawaii and on the West Coast of the United States. Many Korean immigrants who were not otherwise political became involved in these movements and contributed substantially through fund-raising and other activities until Korean independence was achieved in 1945. Syngman Rhee, who would become the first president of the Republic of Korea, was one of the leaders of the struggle for independence.

---

[4] Picture brides are women who are introduced to prospective husbands through photographs. This practice has been common among many immigrant groups when the adult men arrived in this country first and then wrote home in search of a wife.

Mid-Twentieth Century Immigration Patterns

The number of Korean immigrants to the United States between 1905 and 1945 cannot be determined because the Koreans entered with Japanese passports. Technically, no Korean immigrants were admitted to the United States until the Immigration and Naturalization Act of 1952 allocated to Korea an annual quota of 100. However, during and after the Korean War (1950–1953), two special groups of immigrants began to arrive in the United States: the war orphans, who were adopted by families in the United States, and war brides, who had married American soldiers in Korea (B.L.C. Kim, 1988). According to the annual reports from the Immigration and Naturalization Service, about 14,000 Koreans immigrated between 1951 and 1964, most of whom belonged to one of these two groups (*Statistical Yearbook of the Immigration and Naturalization Service, 1988*, 1989).

During this time a small number of Korean students came to study at American colleges and universities, and a number of Korean doctors came for further medical training at hospitals in the United States. Although the total number of these persons was small (about 2,000), they would play an important leadership role in Korea. Many of them returned to Korea, where they have contributed significantly to such areas as economic planning, scientific and technological research and development, university teaching, and educational policymaking.

Prior to World War II, the Korean community in California was small and inconspicuous. The largest Korean community in the United States was in Los Angeles and consisted of only about 650 Koreans living around Jefferson Boulevard between Western and Vermont avenues. This development began what has today become Korea Town in Los Angeles, stretching from Olympic Boulevard to North Hollywood, a community and business center for the more than 150,000 Koreans in southern California.

Late Twentieth Century Immigration Patterns

Compared with figures for other Asian groups, an especially small percentage of Korean Americans was born in the United States. Jiobu's (1988) analysis of 1980 U.S. Census figures from California indicates that only 16 percent of Korean Americans are native born.

In contrast 70 percent of Japanese Americans were born in the United States as were 38 percent of Chinese Americans and 31 percent of Filipinos. Seventy-two percent of Korean Americans in California have immigrated to the United States since 1970, and only 12 percent arrived before 1969. The recency of Korean-American immigration is due in part to the passage of the Immigration and Naturalization Act of 1965, which ushered in a new era of racial and ethnic equity in American immigration policy. This legislation eliminated the quota system based on national origin and gave Koreans an equal chance to immigrate. Following these changes, Korean immigration increased rapidly, with a total of 69,510 reported in the 1970 U.S. Census, when Koreans were first counted as a separate ethnic group. From 1970 to 1975 approximately 20,000 Koreans entered the United States every year, and after that period annual immigration increased to more than 30,000.

The 1980 U.S. Census identified 354,529 Koreans in the United States, with approximately 103,877 (29.3 percent) residing in California. This influx made Koreans the state's fastest-rising Asian population group during the 1970s. Since 1980 figures from the U.S. Immigration and Naturalization Service show an average of 35,000 Koreans per year immigrating to the United States, bringing the total number of Koreans in this country in 1989 to approximately 650,000. Korean communities are found throughout the United States, particularly in New York, Chicago, and Honolulu; but the state with the largest number of Koreans is California. This state continues to attract approximately 30 percent of Korean immigrants to the United States (*Statistical Yearbook of the Immigration and Naturalization Service, 1988*, 1989).

Reasons for Korean Immigration

The extensive exposure to and contacts with the United States gave many South Koreans a positive image of America. Contact with the United States began in the 1880s and then was renewed as a result of the Korean War and subsequent U.S. aid and exchange programs. When given the chance to immigrate to America, many Koreans were ready to take advantage of the opportunity. Unlike the earliest Korean immigrants who came alone under labor contracts, recent arrivals from Korea have come for permanent residence, usually accompanied by young children and later joined by elderly relatives. These new immigrants' motivations for seeking a new life in America include educational opportunity, economic improvement, and reunion with relatives who had already immigrated.

Educational Opportunity

Many Koreans immigrate to the United States because they want their children to obtain a high quality education. Parents regard education as the single most important contributor to their children's future success, and they will take extraordinary measures to ensure that their children have every opportunity to obtain the best education.

Other Koreans come intending to complete their own education at a college or university. Korean graduate students compose the fourth largest group of foreign students attending universities in the United States, demonstrating the keen interest in education and the dedicated pursuit of academic excellence prevalent in Korea (during 1987 there were 26,660 graduate students from Taiwan; 25,170 from China; 21,010 from India; and 20,520 from Korea) (*Open Doors: Report on International Educational Exchange*, 1988). Many of these students remain in this country after obtaining their degrees.

Economic Improvement

Many Korean immigrants, hoping to raise their standard of living and build for the future, come to the United States looking for higher paying positions or better business opportunities than they can find in Korea. Unfortunately, many do not obtain jobs with salaries that are commensurate with their level of education. For example, Jiobu (1988) analyzed U.S. Census data and found that despite having attained a median level of education of 16 years, Korean Americans in California aged 15 years and older receive an annual median income of $10,000, the second-lowest of Asian groups in California. Vietnamese have the lowest median income ($9,000) and Japanese the highest ($14,000), followed by Chinese ($12,000) and Filipinos ($11,000). The median income for whites in this age group is $14,000. This lack of correlation between education and income is especially striking, considering Jiobu's findings that Koreans in California share with Filipinos the highest median level (16 years) of educational attainment among the following groups: Japanese, 15 years; Chinese, 15 years; whites, 14 years; and Vietnamese, 14 years.

A higher correlation between education and income was found in a study by the U.S. Commission on Civil Rights ("The Economic Status of Americans of Asian Descent," 1988). Unlike Jiobu's study, which focused only on Asians in California, this study analyzed a nationwide sample, also based on the 1980 U.S. Census. Findings from this study indicated that foreign-born Korean men aged twenty-five to sixty-four had an average of 14.9 years of schooling, with 55.6 percent of the sample attaining more than 16 years. The average annual earnings of Korean men in this age group were $19,826 compared with $21,163 for non-Hispanic whites. According to Suzuki, the differences in the findings of Jiobu and the U.S. Commission on Civil Rights may be due to differences in the samples and problems inherent in trying to adjust national data samples for regional differences (Suzuki, 1989).

Korean Americans often cite their lack of English proficiency as one of the most important obstacles in obtaining high-paying jobs. In the 1980 U.S. Census, only 64 percent of Koreans surveyed indicated that they could speak English well or very well (Jiobu, 1988) compared with 69 percent of Chinese, 76 percent of Japanese, and 91 percent of Filipinos. Limited cultural knowledge related to recent immigration may also contribute to Koreans' restricted access to adequate employment. Another cause is the reluctance of U.S. employers to recognize the skills acquired by immigrants in their native countries. Whatever the reason, many Koreans cope with these difficulties by developing small businesses in urban areas in the United States, demonstrating exceptional entrepreneurial ability. They are determined to work hard so that their children can eventually enjoy a better life. Typical enterprises include convenience stores, groceries, dry cleaners, electronics shops, and auto repair operations (Yu, 1988).

Family Reunion

Many Korean immigrants are motivated to move here because they have relatives already living in the United States. Koreans are eager to unite families because of the sense of responsibility that they feel for family members, feelings that are based on traditional concepts of the family unit. This situation is particularly true for recent arrivals who emphasize extended and multigenerational families.

It is important to note, however, that in recent years the number of Korean Americans repatriating to Korea has increased steadily. As Korea's economy develops, the need increases for highly educated Koreans fluent in English. This need presents attractive employment opportunities for Korean Americans who are interested in returning to their homeland to reunite with family and reestablish their cultural roots.

Implications Regarding Korean Immigration

Educators need to learn more about Korean immigrants, their past experiences, and present aspirations. Knowing about the similarities and differences that Koreans have with other immigrant groups is essential in gaining an understanding of Koreans' current conditions. For example, because Koreans have immigrated recently, divisions exist between parents and their rapidly acculturating children. While their children are learning independent thinking and open communication in school, many Korean adults use authoritarian parenting strategies that emphasize strict obedience to elders and adherence to rules.

Educators also need to know where to find sources of assistance in the Korean community that can help its members with their personal, family, and job-related problems. Koreans are experiencing various degrees of culture shock, stress in adjusting, and sociocultural disruption caused mainly by a distinctive culture and language, limited-English proficiency, and Asian appearance.

Despite these difficulties, most Korean children benefit from their parents' uncompromising appreciation for the value of education, hard work, adaptability, and self-confidence and for the strong faith in opportunities represented by America. As one of the most highly educated immigrant groups in U.S. history, Koreans represent important resources for U.S. society and its educational system.

By knowing more about Koreans and the process of adaptation to the United States, educators can better identify with the challenges these immigrants face, thereby becoming more reliable resources for Korean children and their parents. To do well in school, students need emotional and academic support from their teachers and parents, support that is carefully coordinated with assistance from community agencies.

Koreans Residing in Other Countries

There are more than 68 million Korean speakers in the world, a figure which ranks this language 15th among the world's language groups (*World Almanac and Book of Facts 1989*, 1988). Korean speakers are mainly located in North and South Korea. The population of North Korea is approximately 20 million, and that of South Korea is about 43 million. Uncounted large numbers of Koreans reportedly live in China and the Soviet Union. The greatest numbers of Koreans living outside Korea are in North America and Japan.

Approximately one million Koreans live in Japan. Yet even though Koreans are Japan's largest resident alien group, they represent less than one percent of the total population. Seventy-five percent of the Koreans in Japan were born and raised there, but friction between the Japanese and the Koreans continues to have a significant impact on the Koreans. Specifically, Japan extends citizenship based on the citizenship of the parent, not on birth. Koreans' inability to achieve citizenship status significantly restricts their access to the full range of rights and privileges accorded to the Japanese. The status of the Koreans is further complicated because their loyalties are divided between North and South Korea, with neither country willing to extend full assistance to them (Lee and DeVos, 1981).

Selected References

Bartz, Patricia M. *South Korea*. London, England: Oxford University Press, Inc., 1972.

Choy, Bong Youn. *Koreans in America*. Chicago, Ill.: Nelson-Hall, Inc., 1979.

The Economic Status of Americans of Asian Descent: An Exploratory Investigation (Clearinghouse Publication 95). Washington, D.C.: U.S. Commission on Civil Rights, 1988.

The Europa Yearbook, 1987: A World Survey. London, England: Europa Publications, Ltd., 1988.

"The Forgotten War," *U.S. News and World Report*, Vol. 108 (June 25, 1990), 30–36.

Han, Woo-keun. *The History of Korea*. Edited by Grafton K. Mintz. Honolulu: University of Hawaii Press, 1984.

History of U.N. Forces in Korea, Vol. 6. Seoul: World History Compilation Committee, Ministry of National Defense, 1977.

Jiobu, Robert M. *Ethnicity and Assimilation: Blacks, Chinese, Filipinos, Koreans, Japanese, Mexicans, Vietnamese, and Whites.* Albany: State University of New York Press, 1988.

Kim, Bok Lim C. "The Language Situation of Korean Americans," in *Language Diversity: Problem or Resource? A Social and Educational Perspective on Language Minorities in the United States.* Edited by Sandra Lee McKay and Sau-ling Cynthia Wong. Cambridge, Mass.: Newbury House Publishers, 1988, pp. 252–275.

Lee, Changsoo, and George DeVos. *Koreans in Japan: Ethnic Conflict and Accommodation.* Berkeley: University of California Press, 1981.

Lyu, I. Y. "Korean Nationalist Activities in Hawaii and the Continental U.S., 1900–1975" Part I: 1900–1919, *Amerasia Journal*, Vol. 4, No. 1, 1977.

"Major Economic Indicators," *Business Korea*, Vol. 7, No. 10 (April, 1990), 100.

Oh, Byung-hun. "Students and Politics," in *Korean Politics in Transition.* Edited by Edward Reynolds Wright. Seattle: University of Washington Press, 1975.

Open Doors: Report on International Educational Exchange. New York: Institute for International Education, 1988.

Robinson, Michael. "Notes on Korean History," in *Korea: A Teacher's Guide, 1986.* New York: The Asia Society, 1986, pp. 4–14.

Robinson, Michael E. *Cultural Nationalism in Colonial Korea, 1920–1925.* Seattle: University of Washington Press, 1989.

Statistical Yearbook of the Immigration and Naturalization Service, 1988. Prepared by the U.S. Immigration and Naturalization Service. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1989.

Suzuki, Bob H. "Asian Americans as the 'Model Minority': Outdoing Whites? Or Media Hype?" *Change*, Vol. 21 (November/December, 1989), 12–19. Washington, D.C.: American Association for Higher Education. Published by Heldref Publications.

World Almanac and Book of Facts, 1989. Edited by Mark S. Hoffman. New York: Newspaper Enterprise Association, Inc., 1988.

Yu, Eui-Young. "Korean-American Communities and Their Institutions: An Overview," *Korean Culture*, Vol. 9 (Winter, 1988), 33–45. Los Angeles: Korean Cultural Service.

Yun, Y. J. "Early History of Korean Immigration to America," in *The Korean Diaspora: Historical and Sociological Studies of Korean Immigration and Assimilation in North America.* Edited by Hyung-chan Kim. Santa Barbara, Calif.: ABC-Clio Press, 1977, pp. 33–46.

CHAPTER II

Educational and Sociocultural Factors Concerning the Korean Language Group

To Koreans living in Korea and to those who have immigrated to America, educational achievement is not only a way to financial security but also a measure of personal worth. This chapter examines the educational and sociocultural influences that Koreans experience within Korean society and describes the influence these experiences have on Koreans' responses and adaptation to education and life in the United States. With this information educators can better understand Korean-American students, their families, and their communities.

Koreans in Korea

The values, beliefs, and customs of Korean Americans are rooted in the educational and social systems of Korea. This section will examine the Korean educational system, the differences in the educational systems of Korea and California, Koreans' attitudes toward education, Koreans' experiences in learning Korean and English, cross-cultural differences in classroom behavior, and the role of English in Korean society.

Educational Factors in Korea

A new educational system in Korea began at the end of the nineteenth century. As Koreans experienced periodic trade with foreign countries, the need for increased knowledge led to the establishment of Korea's first modern schools. As Western missionaries arrived, church-founded schools also began providing education in several cities in Korea; and for the first time, public education was formally extended to women. These schools provided a vital role in freeing Korean women from their subservient position in traditional society (Lee, 1984).[1] During the Japanese colonial period, much attention was paid to the expansion of education; but the system decidedly favored Japanese residents of Korea.

Present structure of education.The present structure of education in Korea, which was formulated in 1949, is based on concepts from the American educational system that were superimposed on a combination of the old Japanese system, traditional Confucian schools, and missionary schools (Oh, 1979). Standard education is divided into four stages: elementary school (six years); junior high school (three years); senior high school (three years); and either two-year junior colleges or four-year institutions of higher education. Korea has both public and private schools, with the academic year beginning in March and running through February of the following year. Winter vacation lasts from the end of December to mid-February, and summer vacation is held from mid-July to mid-August. School tuition and textbooks are provided free to all students in grades one through six. In middle schools and high schools, however, tuition fees are charged, and textbooks must be purchased. About 20 percent of Korea's young children, aged four to six, attend kindergarten. Kindergarten classes are offered mostly in private schools, and many families have difficulty in paying the tuition fees (*Education in Korea, 1989–1990*, 1990).

In Korean schooling, group identification is maintained through strong, overt ties to the school. From kindergarten through high school, students wear some form of school identification. Kindergarten students may wear matching hats and smocks over their play clothes. Most elementary school students do not wear uniforms, but they must wear a plastic identification badge affixed to their clothing every day. In the past all junior high school and senior high school students wore school uniforms, and students were subjected to a strict code of behavior, even on their way to and from school. Until recently, school rules also addressed appearance, such as specifying the length of boys' hair and not permitting makeup for girls. Such adherence to group norms and identification with one's school have been hallmarks of Korean education.

---

[1] See "Selected References," on page 59 for full bibliographical data.

With the modernization of Korean society, the government is attempting to institute various educational reforms. According to *Education in Korea, 1989–90* (1990), some of the reform efforts include fostering students' awareness of their cultural heritage; individualizing instruction; developing students' ability to adapt to the demands of the future, including international challenges; adding diversity to school curricula and administrative operations; and providing schools with the capacity for self-governance and autonomous administration. Plans are also under way to reduce class size to more manageable levels; that is, below the current average of more than 50 students per class at all grade levels.

Role of discipline. One of the important functions of schooling is to develop the student's sense of discipline and civic responsibility. If a child has problems with discipline or academic achievement, parents depend heavily on teachers for solutions. Parents respect teachers as the trained professionals most capable of disciplining their children and expect teachers to assume leadership in their children's intellectual, academic, and social development. Some may ask teachers to administer corporeal punishment, even though such discipline is illegal in Korea. Children are often asked whether they are following the teacher's directions and are told that teachers will be informed if children misbehave at home. Teachers are regarded as the authoritative, knowing, responsible persons who facilitate the children's academic, social, and emotional growth. They are entrusted with far-reaching responsibilities to educate the "whole child." Social values, civic awareness and duty, and academic preparation are all integral parts of the educational program.

Pressure to succeed. Most students are pressured by parents from early childhood to succeed in school. The pressure to succeed results in part from the stiff competition students face in being successful on the examinations required for admission to high school or especially to college. Children are exhorted to maintain high academic achievement, even at the elementary school level, so that they can eventually enter prestigious colleges. While their children are in the early elementary grades, parents will often talk about specific colleges they expect their children to attend. A stigma is attached to a child's being perceived as a slow learner, with parents often concealing or reluctantly dealing with any learning disability their child might have. Children are selective in the subjects on which they concentrate. For example, in grades seven through twelve, they are accustomed to working hard on subjects that are emphasized on college entrance examinations, such as English, Korean, and mathematics. Accordingly, many Korean students in American classrooms pay more attention to mathematics and English than to other subjects because these are the principal subjects required by the college aptitude tests and other achievement tests.

Colleges and universities in Korea operate under strict enrollment limitations, creating a highly competitive atmosphere throughout the educational system. Current estimates are that only one in five applicants to four-year colleges is admitted. Many students reapply several times to well-known universities such as Seoul National University, Yonsei University, Korea University, or Ewha Woman's University if they fail on their first attempt to enter. These so-called repeaters add to the intense competition for college admissions. This competition has increased because the rise in the number of high school graduates each year has not been matched by a corresponding expansion of college campuses. Even after coming to the United States, parents want to send their children to college, especially to prestigious ones. Accordingly, many Korean parents and students consider a two-year junior college in the United States as the least attractive option for higher education.

The emphasis on educational achievement restricts students' access to nonacademic experiences. For example, few students in Korea have had any work experience because parents focus the students' time and effort on studying and preparing for examinations. Similarly, students' leisure time is limited, thereby reducing their opportunities for dating, competitive athletics, and hobbies. Recent reform efforts in Korea include an emphasis on character development and physical health in addition to academic growth (*Education in Korea, 1989–1990*, 1990). Despite these reforms, however, many Korean-American students and their parents may have problems in adjusting to the emphasis that U.S. schools place on extracurricular activities.

Education in Korea and California

The following chart illustrates some of the differences between the elementary and secondary educational systems in Korea and California. It is provided to help educators better understand the environment from which Korean immigrant students come and identify difficulties they may have in adapting to California schools. Sources of information for this chart are *Education in Korea, 1989–1990* (1990), *A Handbook of Korea* (1987), and the *History–Social Science Framework* (1988).

Differences in Education in Korea and in California

In Korea	*In California*
Compulsory, tuition-free education is provided for grades one through six. Assignment to tuition-supported neighborhood middle schools (grades seven through nine) is based on a lottery. Attending kindergarten is optional, and these classes are taught mostly in private schools.	*Compulsory education* is provided for children from ages six to sixteen. Education from kindergarten to grade twelve is tuition-free.
Admission to high schools is determined by a student's successfully completing a citywide or regional entrance examination. Assignment to general and vocational high schools is by lottery. Admission to special high schools is based on a student's aptitude; for example, schools that specialize in fine arts, science, or physical education.	*Admission* to high school is open to students who successfully complete middle school. Assignment to a specific school is based on where one resides.
Most high school students (approximately 75 percent) are enrolled in *academic* or *general high schools*, which focus on preparing for college. A limited number of students enroll in vocational and special high schools.	*Academic and vocational* courses of study are available within the same comprehensive high school. An estimated 25 percent of students are enrolled in college preparatory programs.

Differences in Education in Korea and in California (Continued)

In Korea	*In California*
All high school students follow basically the *same program* of study with few electives. Variation in the program depends on the type of school a student attends; that is, general, vocational, or special. Students take up to 14 courses per semester.	High school students select four or five courses per semester from a wide *variety* of offerings with the assistance of a counselor.
Curriculum content is established by the Ministry of Education for all public and private schools.	*Curriculum content* is established by each school district from the recommendations contained in the *Model Curriculum Standards* and the curriculum frameworks adopted by the State Board of Education.
In middle schools (grades seven through nine), different *subject areas* are integrated in one course. For example, concepts from biology, physics, and chemistry are combined in one science course. In mathematics courses, concepts from algebra, geometry, and trigonometry are integrated. In high schools all subjects are separated.	In middle and high schools, *subject areas* are usually separated and taken at different times or at different grade levels.
Moral education, improving the students' abilities to make sound judgments about the nation and society, is a subject that is required at each grade level in elementary, middle, and high schools.	*Understanding the democratic process* and *civic values* are supplemental concepts that are integrated with the teaching of history–social science at the elementary and secondary levels.
English as a *foreign language* is required each year for all students in grades seven through twelve. In addition to English, students in grades nine through twelve choose an additional foreign language such as Japanese, German, or French.	One year of *foreign language* or one year of visual and performing arts is required for high school graduation.

Differences in Education in Korea and in California (Continued)

In Korea	*In California*
Students in middle schools and high schools remain in their homeroom for most subjects, with *teachers rotating* among classrooms. Students in elementary schools study in self-contained classrooms.	Students in middle schools and high schools *change classrooms* for most subjects. Students in elementary schools study in self-contained classrooms.
The homeroom is a *key element* in Korean education, serving as a forum for developing class identity and personal relationships, dealing with discipline problems, and motivating students to excel. The homeroom teacher acts as the students' academic and social counselor.	The homeroom is *decreasing* in significance, totally disappearing in some schools. When used, the homeroom period is brief and deals mostly with administrative details and announcements.
Students in middle schools and high schools typically enroll in *supplemental classes* for high school and college preparation and take the classes privately after school, usually in English, Korean, and mathematics.	Students at the middle school and high school levels do not usually take supplemental academic classes unless they are underachieving or gifted.
For evaluation, students in middle and high schools are *ranked* individually against peers in their homeroom class and in their entire grade level according to their average performance in all subjects. They also receive number and letter grades for individual subjects.	For evaluation, students are *not ranked* individually against their peers. They receive number and letter grades in individual subjects. Overall performance is recorded in a student's grade point average.
Admission to a university is based primarily on students' performances on a national test. High school academic records and character development are also considered. The number of students admitted depends on an individual university's enrollment limits set by government policy. The number of high school graduates	*Admission* to a university is determined by an individual university's admissions policy. Admission to a two-year community college is open and noncompetitive. Students have multiple options for obtaining higher education, with a wide variation in competitive levels.

Differences in Education in Korea and in California (Concluded)

In Korea	*In California*
far exceeds the number of available openings in four-year colleges. Current estimates are that one in five applicants is admitted.	
Tuition at private and public four-year colleges is charged at similar rates. Scholarships, student loans, and other forms of financial aid are limited.	*Tuition* is much more expensive at private four-year colleges than at state-supported institutions. Scholarships, loans, and other forms of financial aid are available.

Implications Regarding Educational Factors

Korean parents need to know that teachers in the United States expect parents to share the disciplining of children with school personnel. Because Korean schools and teachers assume major responsibility for establishing discipline, most parents have not had to deal with this issue. Parents should therefore receive information and training in solving problems that immigrants encounter in raising children in the United States.

Korean-American parents will also benefit from gaining insights into the peer pressure that their children may feel to participate in nonacademic activities, such as dating, social clubs, and athletics. Parents and educators need to work together to help Korean children cope with the multiple demands placed on them as they grow up in the United States. Teachers can create an effective working relationship with parents by visiting them in their homes, a practice that teachers in Korea pursue.

Korean students who immigrate to the United States will have to make significant adjustments to new social and academic norms. To facilitate the shift to a different life in a new country, these students and their parents will need help from sensitive teachers and counselors. Teachers will find that the students are used to structured, formal activities, in which teachers are to provide substantial guidance and direction for conforming to established norms. Students will benefit from gradual introduction to spontaneous, informal activities in which they are encouraged to help and seek help from peers, make decisions on their own, and express themselves creatively.

Attitudes of Korean Parents

Koreans consider education as the single most important key to their children's future success. In a highly industrialized and bureaucratized society where unskilled jobs are declining and the economy is expanding, success in the competitive educational system is essential for entry into the professions and vocations. Education is esteemed not only for its economic value in later life but also for the social status associated with educational achievement, especially at prestigious schools.

Parents are willing to go into debt to pay for expenses related to education. Mothers especially organize tutorial sessions for their children that involve the hiring of instructors who specialize in preparing either an individual student or small groups of students to pass school examinations or otherwise prepare for the next highest level of schooling. Many parents also pay high tuition at private institutes where students take additional classes to prepare for entrance examinations. Students who have failed examinations ("repeaters") also study at these institutes to get ready for another attempt. The persistence and economic sacrifice of Korean parents demonstrate their commitment to their children's education.

Parents in Korea generally support the schools and hope for fulfillment of their own lives through the success of their children. Parents instill in their children very early the idea that parental acceptance is contingent on high performance in school. The Korean community as well as family and relatives often gives prominence to and recognizes high academic performance. When the report card is sent to parents, they often call each other to compare their children's grades, knowledge of which is shared by parents, relatives, and neighbors. Korean children feel obligated to receive high grades and are imbued with the notion that their academic success is linked to the family's reputation. Students learn early that they are working not merely for themselves but for their family as well. Keenly concerned about their performance, they become competitive not only for their own sake but also for their family's prestige. Low performance levels elicit parental disapproval, criticism, disappointment, and sometimes shame among relatives and friends.

In the United States teachers may often find Korean children particularly sensitive about report cards. This feeling is due in part to the high value that their parents place on success in school, particularly as reflected in grades and test scores. When it appears that students may benefit from special programs, many parents and their children are often reluctant to take advantage of such services as English-as-a-second language (ESL), bilingual education, or special education classes. Some parents may believe that participation in these programs will cause students to miss the higher level of instruction provided by a regular or advanced program.

Language Education in Korea

Korea's literacy rate is now over 97 percent. (Literacy is defined as a reader's ability to comprehend written text required for everyday functioning in society.) This comparatively high level of literacy is attributable to the high value Koreans attach to education and to the ease with which one can read the Korean alphabet, *han-gul*.

Attitudes toward reading and writing skills. Because Koreans have traditionally placed a high premium on scholarship and academic achievement, everyone is expected to be able to read. By the

Implications Regarding Korean Parents' Attitudes

A potential clash in perceptions may occur between the traditional Korean emphasis on the pursuit of academic excellence and the less strict, more low-key atmosphere that prevails in many schools in the United States. Korean students learn quickly from their American counterparts that studying is one activity among many others at school such as athletics, drama, and social activities. Korean parents may become frustrated by seeing their children devote time to extracurricular activities. Educators can avoid this difficulty by facilitating communication between parents and their children toward finding mutually satisfying solutions. Korean children need to know the value of pursuing academic excellence while participating in social activities, and Korean parents need to recognize the value of *both* academic and nonacademic endeavors in U.S. schools. Parents and their children also need help in understanding the value of special services like ESL and bilingual education. They deeply want their children to master English, but many view ESL and bilingual instruction as stigmatizing or incongruent with a college-bound program.

time Koreans finish junior high school, most of them read daily papers and monthly magazines, which are written partially in Chinese characters. In the past Chinese characters (called *han-ja* or *han-mun* by Koreans) have been introduced at various points in secondary education with varying degrees of emphasis. Currently, students begin learning these characters in junior high school.

Controversy continues over whether to increase or decrease the use of Chinese characters in published works. To be able to comprehend a daily newspaper, one must learn approximately 1,600 Chinese characters. Some scholars argue that the Korean language can be written without Chinese characters; others insist that Chinese characters are needed to clarify meaning. In any case many Koreans still believe that knowledge and use of Chinese characters are characteristics of well-educated people. (For more on language policies in Korea involving the use of Chinese characters, see Blank, 1981.)

Learning to read and write Korean. Children begin to read and write the Korean language (using *han-gul*) in the first grade and begin to learn Chinese characters in the seventh grade. At the third-grade level, textbooks include children's literature such as fairy tales, folk tales, and nursery rhymes. Daily newspapers and weekly periodicals add extra sections especially for children. Comic books represent another source of children's stories, as do books containing fables and other literature in both fiction and nonfiction. At the elementary school level, monthly or quarterly school papers are published in which children explore their writing skills. World literature for children, like Grimm's fairy tales and Aesop's fables, are popular reading. (See Appendix B for sources of educational materials in Korean and English to enrich Korean students' education in the United States.)

In the Korean school curriculum, composition receives less emphasis than in the United States. Korean students are trained in penmanship, but writing assignments have not been a significant part of a student's training. One reason for this condition is that large class sizes (approximately 50 students) make reviewing the students' work difficult for teachers. Another reason is that Korean students have not been encouraged to express their own ideas and individuality in writing. A strong tradition exists in education to imitate the classics rather than to create one's own work. A third reason is that, until recently, composition was not tested on local and national examinations. Now that composition in Korean is a part of national college entrance examinations, writing has become important in the curriculum.

In the United States excellent books, magazines, and newspapers are commercially available in Korean in cities such as Los Angeles, San Francisco, New York, and Chicago and in other places where Korean Americans are concentrated. (See Appendix B for sources of materials.) Teachers should encourage parents to help their children develop their reading and writing skills in the Korean language through activities at home and in the community. Teachers should also put these materials in classrooms and school libraries. (See Chapter IV for a description of various approaches to language arts.)

Reading for enjoyment. A large quantity of varied and inexpensive reading material is aimed at the young reading population in Korea. Most neighborhoods have their own newsstands or bookstores offering a variety of educational and recreational reading materials for all ages and interests. Those students with a particular hobby or interest become avid readers of nonfiction subjects such as sports, nature, history, crafts, and music. Many students purchase thick paperback accompaniments to daily or weekly educational media broadcasts relating to their school subjects and hobbies. Magazines and serialized comic books geared to children or teenagers provide further recreational reading.

Attitudes toward oral skills. Koreans appreciate well-developed oral skills just as Americans do, but the two cultures differ in the way that they encourage the development of oral proficiency. Koreans have generally maintained the cultural value that younger persons should avoid raising questions, talking back, or otherwise responding extensively to older persons. Questioning adults is often considered argumentative, impolite, or rude. On the other hand, Koreans are encouraged to speak their minds when confronted with unfairness, dishonesty, corruption, or other immoral behavior. When Koreans do respond, they are respected for having the ability to express ideas forcefully, logically, and tactfully. These conflicting values create apparent contradictions in Korean behavior; that is, Koreans maintain a high level of restraint and decorum, yet they are ready to speak their minds when they feel it necessary to do so.

In Korean schools students are rewarded for maintaining proper behavior in the presence of teachers; that is, bowing, deferring, obeying, and respecting. They are not called on to speak unless the teacher believes that they are ready to respond. For example, a teacher might ask students to recite something they have memorized or thoroughly practiced. No one, young or old, wants to lose face by appearing to be wrong or making a mistake in public. Despite these cultural values teachers have difficulty giving students extensive opportunities for oral language development because of large class sizes.

Students in U.S. schools, on the other hand, are expected to participate actively and learn from their mistakes. They are rewarded for responding to questions, contributing to discussions, and initiating conversation. Asking good questions and responding creatively and spontaneously are ways that students "gain face" as they demonstrate their intellectual ability (Robinson, 1990). Teachers should approach Korean-American children patiently and encourage them to join in classroom activities gradually as a way to minimize embarrassment and bolster their confidence. Strategies like cooperative learning will help students develop important interpersonal skills, enhance self-esteem, and promote oral language ability.

Developing oral language. Educators in Korean schools do not explicitly concern themselves with oral language development in the curriculum. The school does, however, serve an important function in shaping the oral language abilities of the students. Customary American forms of oral language practice are not found in the Korean school; for example, there are few "show-and-tell" opportunities in

Implications of Oral Language Development

Korean-American students whose native language is Korean but who have never received formal training in the Korean language face considerable obstacles to communicating with their parents. The childlike level of language will not pass for acceptable Korean in adulthood. Instruction in Korean needs to deal with appropriate levels of use so that students' Korean expressions are grammatically and sociolinguistically correct.

the early grades and no speech or forensic classes in the upper grades. Influenced by the traditional culture in Korea, teachers do not emphasize spontaneous speech or individual expression in front of the group.

One important function of the school in Korea is to make children aware of the differences in levels of formality of the oral language. Children need to learn the informal language most often used among family members versus the formal language to be used among adults and strangers. (Refer to Chapter III for more information on levels of speech.) Students' mastery of these differences during their school years will be one of the most important preparations for a well-adjusted adult life.

Included in this schooling process is the distinction of standard dialectical patterns of speech from regional forms of speech. Just as educators in American schools convey an implicit preference for standard English, educators in Korean schools model and encourage the use of standard and polite forms of Korean. Educators in Korean schools achieve these forms with a literary and model-oriented approach. In school as well as at home, stories in which various characters exhibit speech appropriate to their social relations with each other are read to children. Even from the earliest reading and writing exercises, the modeling of polite language forms is one of the implicit functions of language arts instruction. Teachers model very polite speech and will sometimes prompt students to use polite forms of speech with them or with other adults in the school. Students are corrected if they persist in speaking out in speech forms that are familiar rather than polite. Because forms of speech quite acceptable for preschool children sound coarse and rude when used by adolescents, teachers and parents emphasize the mastery of polite oral Korean during the school years.

Cross-cultural Differences in Classroom Behavior

Differences in the classroom behavior of Korean and American students are examined in this section. By learning more about the cultural differences of Koreans and Americans, educators can interpret more accurately the behavior of Korean-American students. The study of cultural differences should, however, be done with care and sensitivity. According to linguist Lily Wong Fillmore (1981, p. 24):

> . . . while I regard the question of cultural influences on learning—especially on language—as an important one for us to consider, it is one that I approach with a good deal of caution and trepidation. Such considerations all too easily become the basis for creating stereotypes, and for misjudging the complexity of learning problems.

Generalizations about culture illustrate patterns of behavior that may be considered characteristic of Koreans. These general descriptions do not necessarily apply to every Korean. In the chart on the next page are examples of different values that students in Korea and the United States might demonstrate in the classroom.

Role of English in Korea

Koreans received their first exposure to Western culture and the English language through Western missionaries who started schools and hospitals in Korea at the end of the nineteenth century. After World War II when the U.S. Army arrived on the Korean peninsula to accept the surrender of the Japanese troops, Koreans encountered large numbers of Americans. Additional contact with Americans occurred during the Korean War (1950–1953). Since the signing of the truce in 1953, the United States has maintained a significant military presence in South Korea. Another sizable contingent of Americans was the U.S. Peace Corps, which from 1966 to 1981 sent more than 2,100 volunteers to Korea to serve primarily as English teachers and health workers. Today, people from the United States and other English-speaking countries work in Korea in education, banking, business, and the diplomatic corps. These contacts have provided individual Koreans with opportunities to use their English in a variety of contexts.

Instruction of English in Korea. Koreans study English as a foreign language in Korea. Like most foreign language education in the United States, instruction of English in Korea focuses on the teaching of grammar and reading. Formal English education begins during the first year of junior high school, equivalent to the seventh grade in American schools. Instruction emphasizes linguistic analysis of English; for instance, identifying the subject, verb, object, and personal pronouns. Teachers present the rules of English grammar and provide extensive translation of English into Korean. Reading comprehension is emphasized, but English conversation and composition are not.

Typical Classroom Behaviors

Korean Values	*American Values*
Korean youths . . .	**American youths . . .**
Show respect by avoiding eye contact, bowing, and not initiating conversation with an elder.	Show proper behavior by maintaining eye contact, smiling, and making friendly conversation with an elder.
Must choose differentiated vocabulary and verb forms in order to speak politely to a "superior."	Do not differentiate their word choices radically when speaking to a teacher or a parent's friend. Do not even perceive these adults to be "superior." Will be oneself in all situations.
Will never use the name of an adult when speaking face-to-face. Will call the instructor *seon-saeng-nim* ("teacher") rather than by name.	Politely calls adults by name; for example, "Mrs. Jones" or "Mr. Smith." It is rude to address an instructor merely as "teacher."
Avoid insulting the teacher's efforts by saying, "I don't understand." Will nod politely even while not understanding and attribute the difficulty to their own lack of diligence.	Should speak up whenever they do not understand. Asking questions demonstrates one's intelligence. Perceive their own learning to depend on good or bad teaching.
Will remain silent rather than show faulty understanding or command of a skill. To put forth a mistaken answer or an unperfected skill is a personal embarrassment and an insult to the teacher and the discipline.	Will give their best efforts to answer a question or do a particular task, because trying is more important than being absolutely correct. Although just beginners, these students will not hesitate to demonstrate a skill or speak about a particular subject.
Will hesitate to express a personal opinion for fear that it may sound presumptuous or run contrary to the feelings of the teacher. However, students are encouraged to speak their minds when confronted with unfairness, dishonesty, or other immoral behavior.	Should be able to give their own views on a topic when called on by the teacher and to defend their statements with reasonable arguments.

Typical Classroom Behaviors (Concluded)

Korean Values	*American Values*
Korean youths . . . Must defer to the judgment of superiors and should avoid open disagreements. To be contentious is a sign of conceit.	**American youths . . .** Are encouraged to develop an independent viewpoint and to express it, although it may be in contrast with the view of the teacher or other students. Debating is a high-level oral skill.

Teachers are more comfortable with analyzing sentences than with encouraging practice in conversation and correcting pronunciation because their objective is to prepare students for college entrance examinations. These examinations emphasize grammar and reading comprehension. Accordingly, students become experts in analyzing grammatical structures and translating passages. Recently, however, the Korean government has emphasized the teaching of spoken English, and English textbooks have been revised to promote this new direction. As a result, teachers are paying more attention to aural/oral skills development, and many English teachers are receiving intensive training to increase their proficiency in spoken English. However, in the near term, these changes are not likely to cause an appreciable increase in the number of Koreans who are fluent in conversational English.

Necessity for competency in English. Korea's economic accomplishments have also significantly increased the need to develop competency in English because the international business world is linked primarily through English. Today, Korea publishes two English-language daily newspapers (*The Korea Herald* and *The Korea Times*) and a number of periodicals in English that deal with education, economics, politics, and other fields. English language lessons are presented daily on radio and television. University students also read a great many books in their original English form. In addition, the American Forces Korean Network (AFKN) also produces radio and television broadcasts in English. People listen to AFKN programs to improve their listening skills and to enjoy Western entertainment. Western music represents a key source of Koreans' exposure to English. There are also English-speaking ministers in Christian churches who come from the United States and other English-speaking countries. Koreans who attend these churches have some exposure to English. Most films in English are imported and given Korean subtitles, leaving the English dialogue intact, and weekly periodicals such as *Newsweek* and *Time* are readily available. The *Reader's Digest* continues to be popular reading for high school students. It comes in Korean translation so that students can read the English edition with the translation as a reference. English is used in signs and on products' labels.

Because English study is emphasized in the educational system, many Koreans have a passive familiarity with English, even though they are not fluent speakers. They also have become acquainted with English because of the extensive number of words associated with modern life and technology that Korean has borrowed from English;

Implications Regarding Classroom Behavior

Parents and educators alike must recognize that cultural adaptation is developmental. Students need emotional support as they make the transition from the traditions of their native culture to the values of their new environment. Parents need to learn about these differences and support the process. Adopting a bicultural approach, through which new values are added rather than substituted, can provide a strong foundation for students. Students who are taught to respect their traditional roots emerge as healthier individuals than those who do not. If students reject their heritage, their adaptation will only become complicated.

Parents and educators will benefit from training in understanding both the Korean and U.S. cultures as a way to comprehend the forces that influence Korean-American students' behavior in and out of school. The training will enable parents and educators to model and convey a positive orientation to both cultures. Learning about traditional Korean values, such as avoiding eye contact with elders, will help teachers to assess and interpret children's behavior accurately. Teachers can help children see that maintaining Korean values in their homes and communities may be helpful. In other contexts, however, children will need to learn additional behaviors that are expected of them in the United States.

Implications for Learning English

Students who immigrate to the United States after junior high school in Korea will have had instruction in English that has focused on vocabulary development, reading comprehension, and grammatical analysis, with limited emphasis on composition and aural/oral skills. Teachers should assess the abilities of incoming Korean students and be prepared to provide appropriate English language skills development.

Korean adults and children who come to the United States are generally familiar with English but are not confident users. However, they greatly desire to learn English because they recognize the importance of language competence, and they welcome opportunities to learn English in formal and informal situations. When conversing with Koreans whose English is limited, one should try to make oneself understood by speaking clearly, using visual aids, and checking for comprehension. Writing down key words is also helpful because Koreans often can read with more confidence than they can communicate orally.

for example, *computer* (pronounced as *com-pyu-t'a*), *stereo*, *cassette*, *mass-com* (for mass communication), and *rush hour*. For those motivated to learn to read and speak English at an advanced level, limited opportunities are available. Private institutes specialize in teaching English, especially for skills in conversation. Yet few people become accomplished English speakers, except for English teachers and those who use English in business and government circles.

Koreans in California

Korean Americans' responses to life in the United States result from the influences of their Korean roots and the demands of U.S. culture. Koreans recognize the need to learn English, but they also desire to maintain ties to their native language and culture. This section will describe the ways in which English and Korean are used in Korean-American families and in their communities. Information about language experiences of Korean Americans can help educators create learning opportunities that are closely linked to the language and cultural needs of Korean-American students.

Language Experiences of Korean Americans

Most Korean-American children grow up in environments where they have language experiences in both Korean and English. According to the 1980 U.S. Census, 86 percent of Koreans in California indicated that they speak Korean at home. This figure ranks Koreans second to the Vietnamese (96 percent) but ahead of the Chinese (82 percent), Filipino (71 percent), and Japanese (46 percent) in percentage of persons who use their native language at home (Jiobu, 1988). In many homes Korean is the dominant language of parents and children. In others parents talk to their children in Korean while the children respond in English. In a few immigrant homes, parents and children rely on English.

In business and other sectors of Korean communities in California, most Koreans use Korean as their dominant language while also relying on English for words and concepts that do not translate easily. Most Korean-American children are accustomed to hearing English in stores and businesses and on the street. Some use English at church or youth group meetings. Most of these children also have contact with English by interacting with neighborhood children and by watching television or listening to the radio. Some small children from Korean-speaking homes, however, may have had limited preschool contact with English, particularly because they have not directly interacted with English speakers. And there are still others who are limited in both languages because they have not had sufficient experiences in either language.

Use of English outside school. Students' contacts with English depend on many factors; for example, location of residence, access to English-speaking peers, use of English in the home, and attitude toward learning English. Of the 86 percent of Koreans in California who speak Korean at home, only 64 percent indicate that they speak English well or very well (Jiobu, 1988). These findings suggest that Korean children's initial language development will be primarily in Korean. Families that live in the midst of large Korean populations, such as in Korea Town in Los Angeles, are likely to conduct most of their public and private lives using the Korean language. Their children will probably have more social contacts with Korean peers in Korean than in English. Most likely, communication between parents and children will be primarily in Korean, especially among recent immigrants. Compared with children's language development in Korea, however, these experiences are limited; for example, students will not have developed significant literacy skills in Korean or ability to use Korean in both formal and informal situations.

Children of families that live in ethnically diverse neighborhoods probably will have more exposure to English, especially through contacts with peers. This situation may also cause parents to shift to English more often, resulting in increased ambivalence toward the use of Korean both inside and outside the home. Such a shift may break down the quality of communication between parents and their children. As children rapidly acquire English and use it as their dominant language, their parents have increased difficulty talking with them, especially about complex topics. This problem is exacerbated if parents cannot use Korean for communicating with their children who are losing their Korean proficiency or developing negative attitudes toward the Korean language.

The number of siblings a child has and their relative levels of English proficiency also will affect his or her contact with English outside the school. Older siblings who have been in the United States for a longer time and who are comfortable in English often will teach English to the younger ones. On the other hand, older children who have immigrated recently with their families and who are proficient in Korean may wish to use Korean at home, contributing to the younger siblings' acquisition of Korean.

Despite the factors affecting the Korean-American students' amount of contact with English, its predominance in the United States strongly influences the students' overall linguistic development. Korean students from families that use Korean exclusively and that live in the most concentrated Korean communities will still have significant experiences in English. Television, radio, movies, books, magazines, and peer contact offer a wide range of learning opportunities.

Use of Korean in the community. Koreans' reliance on Korean as a medium of communication is documented in many studies. According to a research study by Bok Lim C. Kim and others, 72 percent of Korean students in Los Angeles indicated that they always spoke Korean with their parents while only 2 percent spoke English. Furthermore, to a large extent, the language spoken during the students' social contacts with peers and others is also Korean (Kim, Sawdey, and Meihoefer, 1980). That study also showed that most of the students' best friends at school are Korean and that a majority play only with other Korean children after school. The study further indicates that the Korean language is the major medium for communication and cognitive development of students.

A survey by the federal government showed that 99 percent of the Koreans in Los Angeles, New York, and San Francisco used Korean as their principal means of communication (*Asian-American Field Survey*, 1977). Oh (1979) found that in the United States 47 percent of Korean families subscribed to Korean daily newspapers, and only 15 percent subscribed to an English vernacular newspaper. This study indicates that, at least for recent immigrants, Koreans may be more cognizant of social, political, and educational developments in Korea than in the United States. Despite lengthy residence in the United States, Korean adults still retain their ethnic identification while that of Korean youth weakens. This difference can increase schisms between parent and child and cause major difficulties in adjusting to living in the United States (Park, 1981). The parents' frame of reference may still be Korean while their children's is American.

Use of Korean in the home. Kim, Sawdey, and Meihoefer (1980) found contradictory attitudes among parents regarding their children's use of English and Korean at home. In this survey of Korean-American parents in Los Angeles and Chicago, an overwhelming percentage (99 percent) of parents in both cities wanted their children to speak only Korean at home. Similar results were obtained in a study of Korean-American students in grades seven to twelve in Los Angeles, where Park found that the same high percentage of parents (99 percent) think that it is necessary for their children to speak Korean well (Park, 1981). Yet at the same time, Kim, Sawdey, and Meihoefer (1980) found that 57 percent of the parents in Los Angeles and 19 percent of those in Chicago wanted their children to use only English at home. Such mixed signals do not bode well for the development of either English *or* Korean. Many Korean-American children have weak skills in both languages, especially at the elementary level.

Korean-American parents may be confused about language development because they do not understand useful strategies for helping their children become proficient in both English and Korean (Kim, Lee, and Kim, 1981). For example, parents may mix Korean and English indiscriminately with their children rather than nurturing the languages separately and creating special uses for each language during family activities. Or parents may refrain from using Korean with their children in the mistaken belief that communicating in Korean will retard their children's English language development. Parents who exhort their children to become fully proficient in both Korean and English without providing them with practical tools to achieve bilingualism may cause frustration and antagonism between themselves and their children. (For more on Korean language use among Korean Americans, see Spaventa, 1987.)

Korean language schools. Korean language schools, usually sponsored by community organizations or churches, are commonly used by parents to support their children's Korean language development. According to Takaki (1989), Koreans in California first established Korean language schools in the 1920s in Sacramento, San Francisco, Dinuba, Reedley, Delano, Stockton, Manteca, Riverside, Claremont, Upland, and Los Angeles. Significant growth in the number of Korean language schools has taken place since 1980.

Korean language schools are found in Korean communities in California and throughout the United States. Figures for 1989 show that 476 Korean language schools were registered in Korean consular offices in the United States. These schools are located in the largest Korean-American communities; for example, Los Angeles reported 132 schools; New York, 89; Chicago, 67; San Francisco, 63; and Washington, D.C., 44. Each school registered in the Los Angeles area has an average of 80 students and nine teachers ("Korean Language Schools," in *Korean Language Education in the United States: A Report by the Korea Society of Bilingualism, No. 5*, 1989). In these schools students meet once a week on Saturday or Sunday morning, usually for about three hours. Korean language classes and cultural activities are provided for the children. Koreans' support of these schools demonstrates the value they attach to their children's bilingualism and understanding of Korean culture (Kim, 1992). The schools are also a reflection of Koreans' high regard for education. Children learn that school is so important that even part of the weekend should be devoted to it (Kim, Lee, and Kim, 1981). With regard to teaching Korean to children in public schools, evidence shows that parents favor such programs as long as their children's English language development is not jeopardized (Pak, 1984).

Korean media. In addition to this network of language schools, Korean Americans support varied means for communication in Korean (Kim, Lee, and Kim, 1981). Two major Korean daily newspapers are available in most cities with large Korean populations. These newspapers include special sections for children encouraging them to contribute essays, poetry, and the like. In the Los Angeles and the San Francisco areas, Korean television stations continue to expand their hours for broadcasting. Southern California radio stations broadcast full time in Korean. Korean department stores and bookstores offer easy access to an extensive array of reading materials, records, audiotapes, and videotapes popular among Koreans. (See Appendix B for more information on these resources in the Korean language.)

Korean organizations. Korean is frequently used in many Korean community organizations and associations throughout California. Many of these organizations provide legal, educational, and counseling services in Korean. Associations based on regional, educational, or military affiliation are active in some California cities, as are organizations serving newly arrived families or senior citizens. These social organizations benefit adults by helping them maintain Korean language and cultural ties. These organizations also help children by sponsoring activities such as essay and speech contests, summer camps, and trips to Korea.

Staff Resources in Korean-American Communities

Korean Americans, who are generally well educated, are excellent candidates to become classroom teachers, instructional assistants, and volunteer tutors. Changes in immigration regulations qualify many Koreans to apply for visas to the United States under the provision that gives preference to professionals or persons of exceptional ability in the sciences and arts. Consequently, a large number of scientists, professors, medical doctors, engineers, pharmacists, dentists, and nurses have obtained visas and come to the United States. However, because many of these professionals are limited in their English proficiency, they fail to obtain licenses to practice in

America and as a result take jobs that are not commensurate with their educational backgrounds (Yu, 1988). For example, one commonly finds former lawyers or accountants engaged in small business enterprises or nurses working as sewing machine operators.

Some Korean adults are experienced teachers. Although most Koreans who come to the United States to teach are university-level instructors, many Korean immigrants who were teachers in Korea do not try to teach in elementary and secondary schools in the United States because they feel that their English language ability and academic preparation are inadequate. Involvement in Korean communities by California educators will improve their understanding of these communities and improve Koreans' access to employment opportunities. School authorities who are seeking Korean-speaking teachers should be aware that, except for a few older teachers, most qualified instructors in Korea have passed rigorous examinations in basic skills and possess the requisite academic credentials. Some wives and mothers in the Korean-speaking community may be potential teachers of Korean to young students and should be encouraged to participate in school activities in which they can use their talents and interests. Korean community language schools also employ instructors who may be excellent candidates for public school assignment and university teacher training programs.

In California an estimated 34 bilingually credentialed Korean teachers are assigned to Korean-speaking students of limited-English proficiency ("DATA/BICAL Report 90-9C," 1990). This figure is compared with an estimated need of 383 such teachers based on a calculation of one Korean bilingual teacher needed for every 35 of the 13,389 Korean LEP students ("DATA/BICAL Report 90-2," 1990). The lack of bilingual staff complicates Korean students' struggles through the multiple challenges of learning English; succeeding in school; and making the necessary psychological, social, and cultural adjustments required of growing children.

Educators need to develop strategies for attracting qualified Koreans to their programs as administrators, teachers, or instructional assistants. Educators should encourage adults in the Korean community to enroll in teacher training programs to obtain necessary credentials. In addition, Korean students should be encouraged to consider teaching as a career. Giving Korean-American students opportunities

Implications Regarding Language Experiences

Korean students and their parents are highly motivated to learn English. They see fluency in English as perhaps the most important way to become socially and economically mobile. However, since most Korean adults are first-generation Americans, achieving English proficiency within their lifetime is difficult. Thus, many children do not have ready access to proficient English models at home. They do, however, have the benefits of well-educated, caring parents who regard education highly. Further, many children are able to participate in a variety of community activities through which children's Korean and English language skills can be developed.

While providing high quality activities for English language development in school, educators should encourage parents to support their children's overall language development at home. Educators should advise parents to use the language with which they are most comfortable, Korean or English, when communicating with their children. They should point out to parents that children will develop English language fluency over time through social and academic activities at school. Parents should be encouraged to cultivate and maintain close, communicative relationships with their children while fostering their children's overall development. Educators should also become familiar with community resources that can enhance school and home activities. For example, Korean language schools offer important opportunities for public school educators to learn more about Korean language, culture, community, and socialization. Educators can learn a great deal from visiting these schools and other community agencies and offering their professional services.

Language development programs at school may be organized in English or Korean or both. In any case the success of such programs depends on an accurate assessment of the children's language development; access of students to well-trained teachers who create authentic, natural language learning opportunities; and interaction with parents who complement this instruction with stimulating activities at home. By fostering productive relationships between teacher and child, teacher and parent, and parent and child, educators will be creating the foundation for the child's life-long challenge of language, academic, and cultural learning.

to tutor their peers in academic subjects is an effective way to stimulate students to think about becoming teachers. One method of formalizing such tutoring is through future teachers' clubs in which students tutor peers, assist teachers, and otherwise explore the teaching profession as a future occupation.

Key Relationships for Korean Americans

This chapter has thus far presented the influences of Korea and the United States in shaping the responses and adaptations of Korean Americans in the United States. The acculturation of Korean parents and their children results from an *interaction* of forces, some of which are rooted in Korea and others that are newly encountered in the United States. The following section synthesizes these many forces through a discussion of the three key relationships that influence the educational process; that is, the parent-child relationship, which will be examined first; the educator-student relationship; and the parent-educator relationship. By understanding and improving these relationships, each person involved can enhance the educational experiences and adjustment of Korean-American children.

The Parent-Child Relationship

After Korean parents have immigrated to the United States, their goal to educate their children does not change. Korean parents expect high scholastic achievement from their children (Kim, Sawdey, and Meihofer, 1980). In the United States parents expect high occupational and educational achievement, expectations that are evident regardless of the parents' length of residency in the United States, educational level, and socioeconomic status (Park, 1981). Korean parents are willing to tolerate adverse conditions such as underemployment and extended work hours as long as their children grow in a positive school environment. One of the reasons that Koreans come to the United States is to improve their children's education, and they are willing to endure great personal sacrifice to achieve this goal.

Korean parents highly respect school administrators and teachers. Most parents consider it their responsibility to assist the school by deferring to the authority of teachers and administrators. These parents depend on teachers for their wisdom and expertise. Most parents believe that their role is to respect, listen, and follow the professional judgment of teachers and administrators. Generally, however, parents do supervise their children's schoolwork; for example, they actively monitor their children's homework. They are reluctant to participate in school functions and confer with teachers because they defer to the authority of educators, lack confidence in their ability to speak English, and work long hours. Such behavior should not be misconstrued as a sign of the parents' lack of interest and responsibility in school affairs. At the same time not all parents are acquiescent. Some Korean parents may be quite vocal and direct in their relations with teachers. The most insistent and forceful ones probably have resided in the United States for a considerable time or are more familiar with American patterns of behavior.

Family stability. In general, the Korean-American family system represents a relatively stable and secure environment for Korean children as they adjust to life in the United States. Compared with the national average, Koreans have fewer single-parent families and a lower divorce rate (Kim, Sawdey, and Meihoefer, 1980). Typical Korean-American parents are in their late thirties and usually have two or three children of school age. In most households both parents are employed full time outside the home in contrast to their living pattern in Korea, where the wife usually works within the home to manage the family. With both parents in the home, Korean-American children are more easily held accountable for their social behavior, academic assignments, and plans for the future.

Evidence exists, however, that many Korean families are becoming destabilized by recent economic and occupational pressures. The small businesses that Korean families operate cause parents to work long hours, often away from their children. These entrepreneurial pursuits may be causing or exacerbating emerging problems among Korean-American children; for example, truancy, dropping out of school, gangs, drugs and alcohol abuse, and psychological problems (Bonacich, 1987; Min, 1989). In addition, small business activities and economic pressures in general increase the likelihood that Korean wives in the United States will work outside the home. Hurh (1989) found that about 20 percent of married women in Korea are employed outside the home compared with about 75 percent of Korean immigrant wives in the United States. These new responsibilities prevent Korean mothers from being as involved in their children's education as they would have been in Korea. In addition, because of the limited ability of both parents to speak English, they cannot help their children with homework as they would have done in Korea. Parents' multiple roles of managing the home, supporting their children's education, and maintaining employment may weaken the family and the academic and social support that children were accustomed to in Korea.

Influences on parent-child relationships. Drawing on their Confucian traditions, Korean parents believe that a positive parent-child relationship depends on their children's obedience to their wishes. In many families parents attempt to develop control over their children with authoritarian rather than egalitarian strategies. Parents also influence their children's behavior by expecting reciprocity for the sacrifices they have made for them; for example, borrowing large amounts of money to pay for school tuition and special tutoring. In Korea teachers reinforce parents' control by using similar hierarchical decision-making strategies that reward conformity and obedience. This approach contrasts sharply with the behavior of U.S. teachers who encourage students to make independent decisions and express their individuality. Such differences can cause Korean-American children to suffer from conflicts between the pressures they experience in their families and in settings outside their home.

Emphasis on education. The pressures of modern life in the United States are mitigated somewhat by the importance that Koreans attach to educational attainment. They regard education not only as a means to success but also as a measure of one's self-worth. Motivation to learn is stimulated by the respect that being well educated will elicit from others and by an internal sense that learning is good in itself (the more one learns, the better). Consequently, Korean parents frequently remind their children that education is to be valued, teachers are to be respected, and assignments are to be completed. In short, education comes first in the family.

However, this emphasis on education leads parents to equate educational success with grade point averages or credits earned in college preparatory subjects. Parents often take a dim view of extracurricular activities and coursework not required for graduation. Recent immigrants are often surprised at the short school day in America, lack of homework assignments, and generally light academic standards of U.S. schools compared with those in Korea. These parents are at a loss in responding to their children's preoccupation with sports or social activities, which they see as distractions from the pursuit of a solid education (C. Kim, 1988). Furthermore, high expectations of parents for their children's achievement often reach unrealistically high levels. These expectations are supportive for those students whose interests and abilities make such goals realistic. However, students who are uncertain about their future careers or who are motivated toward fields other than those their parents consider prestigious find themselves torn between their parents' expectations and their own.

Parents of children who need special services in school may reject these programs in fear of their children's being stigmatized as "slow learners." This rejection also creates problems for students who would benefit from English-as-a-second language and bilingual instruction. Parents need information on the purpose and potential value of such classes. For example, educators should point out that bilingual education offers students the opportunity to learn the Korean language without jeopardizing their learning of English and academic subjects. Educators may also need to augment the rigor and quality of these services to make them more attractive to students and parents.

Biculturality. One of the most crucial areas challenging parents of newly immigrated Koreans is biculturality (Paulston, 1978). The term *bicultural* describes the process of acquiring new cultural behaviors and attitudes while retaining attributes from one's native culture. Kim and her colleagues found that Korean parents hold ambivalent and often inconsistent expectations concerning the cultural choices their children make in finding their place in American life (Kim, Sawdey, and Meihoefer, 1980). Since thought patterns and values are formed and developed early in life through education and interaction between the school and the home, this ambivalence of parents is problematic in their children's socialization and acculturation processes.

Biculturality becomes a useful concept to convey that children can develop new values and cultural orientations in America and simultaneously understand and develop cultural traits represented by the Korean family and community. The development of biculturality involves blending these two distinct sets of values into a new pattern for adapting to the United States. Korean parents and educators in the United States need to cooperate to develop this bicultural sense in their children because this concept is not a familiar one. Like other immigrants, Korean parents usually believe that adopting a new value means giving up an old one instead of combining the two. Parents may believe that detachment from Korean cultural patterns is necessary for one to adjust to the social and academic values in the United States. But Park (1981) found in her study that Korean-American children's strong ethnic identification did not interfere with high levels of academic success.

Acculturation and language learning. Parent-child interactions are complicated by varying rates of acculturation and language learning (Park, 1981; Kim, 1978). Korean-American children are acquiring English and learning about U.S. culture at a faster rate than their parents are. These differences create conflicting attitudes between parents and children over questions of cultural identity and adaptation. Parents and children are equally confused about how to adjust to U.S. society while still retaining Korean language and cultural values. Given a lack of understanding about the acculturation process, many Korean-American parents have difficulty modeling the development of biculturalism. The problem is further compounded because traditional values do not usually allow for open, frank communication between parents and their children. Parents often believe that the children should simply follow the narrow range of acceptable behaviors that make up the parents' value system. Traditional Korean ethics reward those who conform to well-defined, established precepts, not those who deviate because of their creativity and individuality.

Korean parents will benefit from learning about cultural values in the United States and the ways in which their children learn them at school, from their peers, and through the media. Educators can facilitate this learning by providing opportunities for parents to study English and to become aware of strategies for adapting to the cultural pressures parents encounter in the United States. Educators should also organize activities at school that will interest parents, such as Korean Culture Day or Asian Heritage Week, and encourage them to participate in activities with teachers and parents of other ethnic backgrounds.

Korean parents are committed to helping their children to succeed in school. Ironically, however, some of the parents' strategies are counterproductive. Authoritarian parenting strategies, for example, have been shown to correlate highly with low grade-point averages of children (Dornbusch, 1986). Educators need to help parents realize that by combining parental fervor for educational success with democratic parenting strategies, such as open communication, active listening, and negotiation, parents may find the balance that characterizes successful bicultural development in the United States.

The Educator-Student Relationship

The relationship between Korean-American students and their teachers rests on both strong and weak elements. On the one hand, these students manifest many of the positive attributes teachers use to form high expectations of the students' academic abilities. Rist (1981), for example, found that teachers regard as high achievers those students who dress neatly, follow directions, and have educated parents. On the basis of these high expectations, teachers place students in high-ability groups and give them more individual attention and other forms of positive reinforcement than they do to students who do not conform to these characteristics.

Many Korean students fit a profile that indicates a potential for high academic success. Their respect for teachers, willingness to follow directions, and eagerness to please elicit generally positive reactions from teachers. In turn, teachers seem to establish a supportive atmosphere for meeting Korean students' academic needs. Korean students' comparatively high educational achievement seems to be associated with values like conformity and respect for authority, key elements of the Confucian tradition of their families (Park, 1981). However, other Korean students are not successful in school. Teachers may have difficulties understanding why these students are not doing as well. Such students may be victims of interrupted schooling caused by their immigration, cultural conflicts with their parents, deviant peer groups, or psychological problems related to cross-cultural adaptation.

Being regarded as members of a "model minority" with exceptional academic ability creates special pressures on Korean-American children. With little room for error, many believe that they have to make all A's, learn English, master American culture, and prepare for college—all at once. Those who develop academic or emotional problems along the way may feel that they are somehow abnormal or disabled compared with their Korean or other Asian counterparts. These students are reluctant to seek help from others because of the humiliation that their shortcomings will bring to their families (Holt, 1989).

Effects of prejudice. A further problem for some Korean-American students is that as members of a minority group they may encounter racial hostility manifested by violence, harassment, rejection, and other forms of prejudice (*Attorney General's Asian and Pacific Advisory Committee, Final Report*, 1988; Olsen and Chen, 1988). In an atmosphere of fear, intolerance, ethnocentrism, and prejudice, the harassed students do not feel comfortable or supported. Korean students are also troubled by being misidentified as Japanese or Chinese.

Korean students' mental health depends on their access to people who understand them and their problems. Yet Koh and Koh (1988) point out that teachers have difficulty identifying and treating Korean students' psychological and emotional problems. Koh and Koh's analysis indicates that most of the Korean-American students' problems were misdiagnosed. Although the students were referred to appropriate resources, the researchers found that educators were not able to provide the treatment recommended by psychologists; for example, individual and parent counseling. Kim, Sawdey, and Meihoefer (1980) also document how teachers feel handicapped by not having specific information on the cultural background of Korean-American students.

Need for understanding. Difficulty in assessing and responding to students' needs suggests a lack of understanding among educators of the social-psychological background of Korean-American students. This situation severely inhibits educators' abilities to anticipate potential problems, identify current difficulties, and take corrective action. Kwon (1990) suggests that the lack of counselors and other school staff who can speak Korean and otherwise knowledgeably communicate with Korean-American children poses significant problems.[1]

---

[1] Howard Kwon was formerly Coordinator, Special Programs and Services, ABC Unified School District, Cerritos, California.

Assuming that Korean students are doing well, teachers may not create a full range of learning opportunities. For example, a teacher may allow Korean-American children to work alone if they resist participating in small groups. Although these children may do well on their own, they need to develop the language, social, and academic skills required for success in groups. Through cooperative learning activities, for example, Korean-American students can learn not only academic content but also social skills such as how to lead a group, how to help others who are having trouble, and how to master the oral language skills that are important for success in a group (Kagan, 1986). These group skills are essential for psychosocial development, for success in the world of work, and for social integration at school and in the community.

Without Korean staff at school or other teachers who are knowledgeable of Korean language and culture, students have little access to positive reinforcement regarding their native language and country. Worse, few programs in U.S. public schools teach Korean language, history, or other aspects about Korea. Despite Korea's emergence as a major economic power in Asia and as one of America's key trading partners, U.S. schools have not instituted Korean language programs that would better prepare Korean and other students for the interdependent world of the future (*Attorney General's Asian and Pacific Advisory Committee, Final Report*, 1988). Absence of the Korean language, culture, and history from the curriculum may increase the ambivalence of Korean-American students toward their native language and heritage, thereby creating more psychological stress and additional conflicts with their parents, siblings, and members of the extended family.

The educator-student relationship is complicated by a variety of social, cultural, and academic factors that are confusing to both educators and students. The challenge for educators and Korean-American children is to pursue school success while at the same time developing strategies for identifying and solving academic and social problems that are an inevitable part of growing up and going to school in the United States (Holt, 1989).

Role of teachers. Teachers play an important part in helping Koreans adjust to U.S. culture. When the cultural uniqueness of Koreans is reflected in school programs, Korean students can more easily overcome their feelings of inadequacy and the lack of self-confidence brought about by language difficulties and bewildering cultural phenomena found in the United States. Korean students and their parents need the support of educators in preserving their cultural traditions and adapting them to the American context. As Koreans promote their cultural heritage and adjust to life in the United States, they create a new culture, a Korean-American culture, which enhances their own lives and those of Americans.

By learning about Korean culture and the cultural adjustment patterns of Korean Americans, teachers can become mediators in Koreans' bicultural development. By learning more about the psychology and sociology of Korean Americans, teachers can more accurately identify those children who are having emotional problems that may interfere with school success. Teachers' use of a full range of learning activities—competitive and cooperative, small group and individual—will help Korean-American students learn adaptive strategies for succeeding academically and socially. Educators also play a vital role in helping Korean-American students develop pride in their cultural background. Students depend on teachers and other educators to become advocates for including Korean language and culture in the curriculum. All students need to recognize the importance of Korea's role in the economy of California. A knowledge of Korean language and culture will help to ensure a mutually beneficial link between California and Korea in the future.

The Parent-Educator Relationship

The academic, language, and psychosocial success of Korean-American students depends in part on the quality of the relationship between their parents and those responsible for educating them. As major resources in a child's development, parents and educators must cooperate so that their strengths become mutually supportive. As with the other relationships discussed previously, successful collaboration is based on a commitment to an interdependent partnership in which participants freely share information and other resources so that everyone can become increasingly competent in supporting the child's education.

Needs of educators. Educators and parents often lack an understanding of how they can support one another in educating Korean-

American children. Educators are frequently unaware of the Korean community and its institutions that could help the schools become cultural brokers to improve the students' education. For example, churches in the Korean-American community serve many critical functions for families (B.L.C. Kim, 1988). They help newly arrived immigrants become established, reinforce ethnic traditions by celebrating cultural events, and teach the Korean language and other school-related skills in special weekend classes. Educators can use these schools and other resources to improve Korean-American students' learning opportunities in school. (See Appendix B for information on community resources.)

Elementary and secondary educators in need of Korean-English bilingual staff may find a qualified teacher or instructional assistant in a nearby church or community center. They may also borrow instructional materials that could help students in school activities. Furthermore, educators can learn a great deal about the Korean community by getting to know individuals associated with these language programs. For example, they may find a Korean with a background in psychology who could help students in need of counseling. When educators rely on social relationships within the community, they enhance their credibility among parents and students.

In addition to churches and community-based organizations, there are numerous overlapping networks of voluntary organizations and associations in the Korean community, including women's clubs, senior citizens' groups, and alumni groups from universities in Korea. Once a relationship has been formed with one or more such groups, educators will be able to deepen their understanding of the needs of Korean families as they adapt to U.S. society. Recognizing the dynamics of parents' cross-cultural adaptations will help educators better understand Korean students' needs and discover ways for schools to build on these students' out-of-school experiences. Finally, by participating in Korean-American community activities, educators will demonstrate to parents a respect for Koreans and a dedication to learn more about them. (Holt, 1989).

Needs of parents. Just as educators need to learn more about the Korean-American culture, Korean-American parents need to understand the U.S. educational system. Since most of the social networks of Korean Americans are confined to their ethnic community (C. Kim, 1988), their knowledge of U.S. schools and other social institutions is

Implications Regarding Role Relationships

Students, parents, and educators are disadvantaged by their lack of information and their misconceptions about each other. As a result, the roles that they assume to further the education process are often contradictory, thereby weakening the emotional and academic support system that children need during their school experience. Students, parents, and educators must increase their knowledge of themselves and the cross-cultural milieu in which they live and work.

A variety of strategies can be employed to maximize successful interaction between parents and educators. School personnel can establish good relationships with community organizations and news media to announce school activities in Korean. A telephone hot line can be installed at the school with prerecorded information in the Korean language about current events of interest to parents. Because many Korean parents conduct their work schedules during extended business hours and generally do not mind weekend activities, meetings can be set up on Friday evenings or Saturdays to enable parents to attend. Occasionally, these meetings can be arranged solely for Korean parents to address their specific needs better and to avoid the complications with translations that often occur in linguistically mixed groups. When social and cultural events are being planned, involving parents is recommended to assure them that they have a role in school affairs. This involvement will help overcome the alienation that many parents often feel caused in part by their lack of facility in English. Other ways to deal with the language barrier include sending correspondence in Korean to parents and, when conducting private meetings with them, writing down some of the troublesome words that may arise as a way to capitalize on their English literacy skills.

Perhaps the most important step that can be taken to cement a good relationship between parents and educators is for the educator to establish personal contacts with the parents. Establishing this contact is significant because parents need to be reassured that discussions about sensitive issues concerning their child will remain confidential. Koreans emphasize cultivating networks of relationships and personal contacts as resources for obtaining information and assistance needed to accomplish tasks and solve problems. Parents are likely to respond positively to educators who reach out to them to establish relationships designed to support their children's education.

limited. They may not be aware of such things as common strategies for discipline in U.S. schools, the courses required for high school graduation, or the process of applying to college.

Perhaps most important, Koreans' traditional views regarding the role of teachers differ significantly from those held by teachers in the United States. In Korea parents generally defer to the authority of the teacher. They entrust to the teacher the full responsibility for their children's academic *and* social development. This assumption runs counter to the roles expected of teachers and parents in the United States. Regarding parents as key partners in the educational process, teachers expect parents to work closely with school staff to support their children's education. Failure of Korean parents to respond to written school communiques and absences from parent advisory committee meetings should not be interpreted as evidence of the parents' lack of interest in school. On the contrary, parents may be unable to respond because of busy schedules, fear of embarrassment caused by their limited ability in English, or deference to the teacher as the one most able to help their child.

These discontinuities between the hierarchical and authoritarian family structure and the democratic and individualistic environment of the school complicate the schooling of Korean-American children. Koh and Koh (1988) have documented the difficulties that teachers have in identifying and treating Korean students' psychological and emotional problems. Korean parents, on the other hand, have their own problems in accepting and coping with their children's emotional problems. The social stigma attached to having "problem" children may cause parents to deny the situation, rather than to seek help from educators or other professionals. Whether actions of Korean parents are rooted in this perception of shame or determined for other reasons, Koreans clearly rely more on themselves than on groups or agencies outside the family to solve personal problems (B.L.C. Kim, 1978). This phenomenon makes it very difficult to deal with children who have special education needs.

Selected References

Asian-American Field Survey. Washington, D.C.: Division of Asian-American Affairs, U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, 1977.

Attorney General's Asian and Pacific Advisory Committee, Final Report. Sacramento: Office of the Attorney General, California State Department of Justice, 1988.

Blank, Lenore Kim. "Language Policies in South Korea Since 1945 and Their Probable Impact on Education." San Francisco: University of San Francisco, 1981 (unpublished doctoral dissertation).

Bonacich, Edna. "Making It in America: A Social Evaluation of the Ethics of Immigrant Entrepreneurship," *Sociological Perspectives,* Vol. 30 (October, 1987), 446–466.

"DATA/BICAL Report 90-2." Sacramento: California Department of Education, 1990.

"DATA/BICAL Report 90-9C." Sacramento: California Department of Education, 1990.

Dornbusch, Sandy. "Helping Your Kid Make the Grade," *The Stanford Magazine,* (Summer, 1986), 47–50.

Education in Korea, 1989–1990. Seoul: National Institute of Educational Research and Testing, 1990.

A Handbook of Korea. Developed by the Korea Overseas Information Service. Seoul: Seoul International Publishing, 1987.

History-Social Science Framework. Sacramento: California State Department of Education, 1988.*

Holt, Daniel D. "The Education of Korean-American Youth: Achievements, Problems, and Mental Health Issues," Sacramento: California Department of Education. 1989.

Hurh, Won Moo. "Employment of Korean Immigrant Wives: The Burden of Double Roles," *Korean and Korean-American Studies Bulletin.* New Haven, Conn.: East Rock Institute, (Spring/Summer, 1989), 17–19.

Jiobu, Robert. *The Economic Status of Americans of Asian Descent: An Exploratory Investigation.* Albany: State University of New York Press, 1988.

Kagan, Spencer. "Cooperative Learning and Sociocultural Factors in Schooling," in *Beyond Language: Social and Cultural Factors in Schooling Language Minority Students.* Developed by the Bilingual Education Office, California State Department of Education. Los Angeles: Evaluation, Dissemination, and Assessment Center, California State University, 1986, pp. 231–298.

---

*For more information on ordering this publication, see page 177 of this handbook.

Kim, Bok Lim C. *The Asian Americans: Changing Patterns, Changing Needs*. Montclair, N.J.: Association of Korean Christian Scholars in North America, Inc., 1978.

——— "The Language Situation of Korean Americans," in *Language Diversity: Problem or Resource? A Social and Educational Perspective on Language Minorities in the United States*. Edited by Sandra Lee McKay and Sau-ling Cynthia Wong. Cambridge, Mass.: Newbury House Publishers, 1988, pp. 252–275.

Kim, Bok Lim C.; B. Sawdey; and B. Meihoefer. *The Korean-American Child at School and at Home: An Analysis of Interaction and Intervention Through Groups*. Washington, D.C.: Administration for Children, Youth, and Families, U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, 1980.

Kim, Chang-Ho. "Korean-American Students' Attitudes Toward American Society." (Results of survey conducted for doctoral research at Stockton, Calif.: The University of the Pacific), June, 1988.

———"Korean Language Schools in Southern California." Stockton, Calif.: The Univeristy of the Pacific (doctoral dissertation to be completed in the spring of 1992).

Kim, Kenneth Kong-On; Kapson Lee; and Tai-Yul Kim. *Korean Americans in Los Angeles: Their Concerns and Language Maintenance*. Los Alamitos, Calif.: National Center for Bilingual Research, May, 1981.

Koh, T. H., and S. D. Koh. "Cognitive and Affective Adaptation of Korean-American Schoolchildren in Chicago: Service and Research Priorities." Paper presented at the annual meeting of the Association for Asian Studies, San Francisco, March 25–27, 1988.

"Korean Language Schools," in *Korean Language Education in the United States: A Report by the Korea Society of Bilingualism*, No. 5. (original in Korean language). Edited by Shim Jae Kee. Seoul: Korea Society of Bilingualism, 1989, pp. 149–205.

Kwon, Howard. Interview by Daniel D. Holt. Cerritos, Calif., March 1, 1990.

Lee, Ki-baik. *A New History of Korea*. Translated by Edward W. Wagner and Edward J. Schultz. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1984.

Min, Pyong Gap. "The Social Costs of Immigrant Entrepreneurship: A Response to Edna Bonacich." *Amerasia Journal*, Vol. 15, No. 2 (1989), 187–194.

Oh, T. S. "Koreans in the United States: Their Life and Thoughts." *Joong-Ang Daily News*, September 25–October 10, 1979.

Olsen, S., and M. Chen. *Crossing the Schoolhouse Border: Immigrant Students and the California Public Schools.* San Francisco: California Tomorrow, 1988.

Pak, Nomyon. "A Survey Study of Korean-American Acculturation, Value System, and Attitudes Toward Bilingual Education in Northern California." San Francisco: University of San Francisco, 1984 (unpublished doctoral dissertation).

Park, Chung-Hee C. "Ethnic Identification, Sociocultural Adjustment, and School Achievement of Korean-American Youth in Los Angeles." Los Angeles: University of Southern California, 1981 (unpublished doctoral dissertation).

Paulston, C. "Biculturalism: Some Reflections and Speculations," *TESOL Quarterly*, Vol. 12 (December, 1978), 369–380.

Rist, R. "Teacher Expectations and Student Perceptions: A Decade of Research," Alexandria, Va.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, February, 1981.

Robinson, James H. "Linguistic, Cultural, and Educational Contexts of Korea," in *The Korea Papers*, No. 10. Washington, D.C.: National Association for Foreign Student Affairs, 1990.

Spaventa, Louis J. "Korean-American Educational Attitudes: A Thesis in Educational Theory and Policy." University Park: The Pennsylvania State University, 1987 (unpublished doctoral dissertation).

Takaki, Ronald. *Strangers from a Different Shore: A History of Asian Americans*. Boston, Mass.: Little, Brown and Company, 1989.

Yu, Eui-Young. "Korean-American Communities and Their Institutions: An Overview," *Korean Culture*, Vol. 9 (Winter, 1988), pp. 33–45, Los Angeles, Calif.: Korean Cultural Service.

Wong Fillmore, Lily. "Cultural Perspectives in Language Learning," *TESL Reporter*, Vol. 14 (1981), 23–31.

CHAPTER III

Linguistic Characteristics of the Korean Language

The Korean language is intriguing because of the way in which it differs structurally from Indo-European languages, its unique writing system, and its special ways of reflecting the culture of the Korean people. This chapter provides a brief history of the Korean language; an examination of its relationship to Chinese and Japanese; a discussion of the dialectal differences in Korean; a description of Korean grammar, syntax, and phonology; a description of *han-gul*, the Korean writing system; and an explanation of the interrelationships between the Korean language and culture. Learning about the Korean language will enable educators to improve their understanding of the linguistic and cultural backgrounds of Korean Americans. For readers who wish to learn more, this chapter may provide the foundation for further study of the Korean language and the resulting benefits associated with being able to speak Korean with Koreans.

Origin of the Korean Language

Archaeologists have found evidence dating back several hundred thousand years that people inhabited the Korean peninsula during the Early Stone Age. These inhabitants and subsequent generations must have used some form of language or languages. However, few records exist to reveal what languages the people of the peninsula spoke in prehistoric times. Examining the languages used during the Three Han Period, in the first century B.C., and the following Three Kingdoms Period, from the first century B.C. through the seventh century A.D., is the major means for postulating the origin of the Korean language.

The three plausible answers that have been found in attempting to answer the question of the earliest genetic relationship of Korean with other language families are (1) the traditional view of such scholars as Ramstedt (1949), Poppe (1965), and Lee (1967) that the Korean language shares its genetic origin with the family of Altaic languages, including Manchu, Mongolian, Turkish, and even Japanese; (2) the concept that Korean originated from two different language families, Altaic from the north and Polynesian from the south via Japan (Kim, 1983); and (3) the view that because of insufficient evidence to support a definitive genetic relationship with other languages, Korean is something of a language isolate (Gleason, 1955).

Regardless of whether Korean belongs to the Altaic family or not, a number of features common among the Altaic languages are also present in Korean: words are built by agglutinating affixes; the vowels within a word follow certain rules of harmony; and articles, relative pronouns, conjunctive words, explicit gender markers, and auxiliary words are absent.

Relationship of Korean to Chinese and Japanese

Korean is not related to the Chinese language, which is a member of the Sino-Tibetan family. However, geographic proximity to China has brought a heavy Chinese linguistic and cultural influence to Korea. Over 50 percent of the words in the Korean dictionary are of Chinese origin; and most legal, political, scientific, religious, and academic vocabularies as well as Korean surnames are based on Chinese borrowings and may be written in Chinese characters. The meaning and pronunciation of these Sino-Korean words have often changed as they have been assimilated into the Korean language and culture.

The Japanese language, on the other hand, may be considered a distant relative. Some basic words for body parts, clothing, and agriculture are shared by both languages, suggesting some degree of linguistic-family relationship. Many other similarities between the two languages exist; that is, both have the common features of the Altaic family, and the grammatical structures of both languages are so close that word-for-word translation of Korean into Japanese or vice versa is easily done. Whether the structural similarities and the sharing of some vocabulary items are signals of a genetic relationship or simply a manifestation of a relationship by adoption or borrowing between the two languages remains unanswered (Lewin, 1976).

Dialectal Differences

Major dialectal differences exist along the traditional boundaries of the provinces of the entire Korean peninsula, including North Korea: the Northeast (Hamgyong-do), the Northwest (Pyongan-do), the central provinces (Kangwon-do, Hwanghae-do, Kyonggi-do, and Ch'ungch'ong-do), the Southeast (Kyongsang-do), the Southwest (Cholla-do), and the Chejudo Island. Since the 1930s the dialect spoken in the central provinces, especially around Seoul, the nation's capital, has been designated as the standard language by the Korean Linguistic Society. Although a considerable number of variations exist among the dialects in terms of phonological and lexical differences, the differences are not great enough to render mutual understanding impossible. The dialect spoken in Kyongsang-do (the Southeast, including the large cities of Taegu and Pusan) has pitch and stress intonations that are uniquely its own.

The dialect spoken on Chejudo Island, which is the largest and southernmost Korean island, contains many words that are difficult for speakers of other dialects to recognize. These words are earlier forms of the language and provide an invaluable source for study of the history of the Korean language.

Since the division of Korea into North Korea and South Korea in 1945, some differences in spelling, pronunciation, and use of vocabulary have developed, but no major linguistic division has come about. One of the major differences between the two countries is in the use and nonuse of *han-ja*, Chinese characters, in print. In South Korea *han-ja* is taught from middle school through high school, but in North Korea only the Korean alphabet, *han-gul*, is taught.

Written material from North Korea conveys information about the dialects spoken there. The most notable feature seems to be the presence of words that begin with *r* ㄹ in *han-gul*. Words such as *ro-dong-ja* 로동자 (worker) and *ryeok-sa* 력사 (history) found in North Korean literature are written and pronounced as *no-dong-ja* 노동자 and *yok-sa* 역사, respectively, in South Korea.

Public education and modern advances in transportation, telecommunications, and mass media have greatly increased contact between speakers of various dialects. Today, few areas in South Korea are so isolated as to be unexposed to the standard dialect.

General Remarks on the Korean Language

Many aspects of the Korean language distinguish it from English and other Indo-European languages. This section will address some of the basic differences between Korean and English in grammar, syntax, phonology, and phonetics. In discussions of contrasts between languages, two cautions are in order for teachers. First, differences between languages should not be the primary concepts presented in lesson plans. Second, grammatical differences between two languages do not necessarily predict the errors that students will make when learning the languages. (See Chapter IV for suggestions for developing curriculum and instructional activities.)

Differences Between Korean and English Grammar

Among the major differences between Korean and English are the Koreans' use of honorifics, different levels of speech, articles, plural markers, pronouns, adjectives, verb forms, words that symbolize sounds, demonstratives, and negative questions. Each of these differences will be discussed briefly.

1. Honorifics are the markings for nouns and verbs to express the speaker's attitude toward the addressee and the person spoken of. In the absence of honorific markings in English, Korean speakers sometimes try substituting *sir* or *ma'am*, or adding *thank you* at the end of a sentence to show politeness. For example, - 님 (*-nim*) used after a personal noun and - (으)시 (*eu-shi*) within a verb express the speaker's honorific attitude as in:

Mr. Kim, how are you?

김선생님.	안녕하십니까?	
*Kim-seon-saeng-**nim***	*an-nyeong ha-**shim**-ni-kka?*	
Mr. Kim (**honorific**)	well	are you (**honorific**)?

2. There are four main levels of speech—polite-formal, polite-informal, plain, and intimate style—from which one has to choose in everyday dialogue. The rules governing the choice of style in conversation derive from the art of knowing the complex sociocultural fabric of Korean. Simply stated, the polite-formal style is used in a formal relationship; that is, for a public speech or to a superior; the polite-informal style, for informal daily dialogues; the plain style, for friends and for nonpersonal writing, such as essays, newspaper articles, and so forth; and the intimate style, for close friends and children.
3. Unlike English, Korean does not have explicit definite or indefinite articles, such as *the* or *a*; therefore, Korean speakers have difficulty using the articles correctly. However, the Korean language does have ways of expressing definiteness or indefiniteness but does so by means other than the use of articles.
4. Although Korean has a plural marker 들 (*deul*), its use is not obligatory as in English; rather *deul* is used optionally for emphasis and clarity and mostly for personal nouns and pronouns, as in:

There are many students in the classroom.

Example A

교실에	학생이	많다.
*kyo-shil-**e***	*hak-saeng-**i***	*man-t'a*
classroom **in**	student-**subject marker**	are many

Example B

교실에	학생들이	많다.
*kyo-shil-**e***	*hak-saeng-deul-**i***	*man-t'a*
classroom **in**	student-plural-**subject marker**	are many

Both the unmarked (singular) *hak-saeng* and the plural *hak-saeng-deul* in the previous examples mean 'student' in English translation. The distinction between singular and plural is made by the context of the sentence. In the case of Example A shown previously, the unmarked (singular) *hak-saeng* 'student' is understood as 'students' because of the verb *man-t'a*, which means 'there are many.'

The plural marker (*deul*) is rarely used, except for person-nouns as in *hak-saeng-deul* (students), *sa-ram-deul* (persons), and *eon-ni-deul* (sisters) and pronouns as in *u-ri-deul* (we), *keu pun-deul* (they), and *neo-heui-deul* (you). This fact may explain why beginning Korean students of English often misuse singular and plural nouns.

5. Unlike the English pronoun system (I/we; you/you; he, she, it/they), Korean has *na/u-ri* for (I/we) and *neo/neo-heui-deul* for (you [singular]/you[plural]). But for the third person (he, she, it/they), it has a collection of person-nouns used as personal pronouns.

   The following paradigm shows the pronouns and the pronoun-like words in Korean:

	Singular		*Plural*
I	나 *na* (plain form)	we	우리 *u-ri* (plain form)
	저 *cheo* (humble form)		저희(들) *cheo-heui* (-deul) (humble form)
you	너 *neo* (plain form)	you	너희(들) *neo-heui* (-deul) (plain form)
	선생님 *seon-saeng-nim* (honorific form) (teacher-honorific)		선생님들 *seon-saeng-nim-deul* (honorific form) (teacher-plural)
she/he	그 사람 *keu sa-ram* (plain form) (that person)	they	그 사람들 *keu sa-ram-deul* (plain form) (the persons)
	그 분 *keu pun* (honorific form) (that person)		그 분들 *keu pun-deul* (honorific form) (that person)

There is no second person pronoun comparable to *you* in English that can be used for anyone, regardless of age or status, whom the speaker is addressing. The most often used words for *you* in Korean are one's position or status as in *seon-saeng-nim* (teacher), *hak-saeng* (student), or *Tom eom-ma* (Tom's mom).

Korean pronouns have a two-way system of honorific and plain with which the style of speech and the use of honorifics in the verb must agree, as in:

	그 분은	누구	십니까?
Who is she/he?	*keu* ***pun****-eun*	*nu-gu*	***shim-ni-kka?***
(respectfully)	she/he (honorific)	who	is (honorific)
	그 사람은	누구	이니?
Who is she/he?	*keu* ***sa-ram****-eun*	*nu-gu*	*(i-)****ni****?*
(asking plainly)	she/he (plain)	who	is (plain)

There is no gender difference in Korean pronouns, as indicated by *she/he* for the third person pronouns in the preceding sentences. This fact helps explain why Koreans confuse *he* and *she* when speaking English.

6. Adjectives function like verbs in the way that they take honorifics, plural, tense, conjunctives, and modals, as in:

it is good	좋다 *cho-t'a* good + verb ending
it was good	좋았다 *cho-at-ta* good + past + verb ending
if it is good	좋으면 *cho-eu-myeon* good + if conjunctive
it might be good	좋겠다 *cho-ket-ta* good + modal + verb ending
(she/he) is good (honorific)	좋으시다 *cho-eu-shi-da* good + honorific + verb ending

7. There are no independent auxiliary or modal verbs such as *can*, *may*, *shall*, or *will* in Korean. Such meanings are conveyed by idiomatic expressions of *-l-su it-ta* (it is possible); *-l keot kat-ta* (It is probable that); *-l keo shi-da* (shall), and so on, as in:

I can go to L.A.	L.A.에 *el-ei-e* L.A. to	갈수있다 *kal-su it-ta* go is possible
I may go to L.A.	L.A.에 *el-ei-e* L.A. to	갈것같다 *kal keot kat-ta* go is probable
I shall go to L.A.	L.A.에 *el-ei-e* L.A. to	갈것이다 *kal keo shi-da* go shall
I will go to L.A.	L.A.에 *el-ei-e* L.A. to	가겠다 *ka-get-ta* go will

8. Many Korean verbs of direction such as *walk*, *run*, *bring*, *take*, and *fly* are in compound form of manner + action, as in:

to walk	걸어가다 *keor-eo ka-da*	walk + go
to run	뛰어가다 *ttwi-eo ka-da*	run + go
to bring	가져 오다 *ka-jyeo o-da*	have + come
to take away	가져 가다 *ka-jyeo ka-da*	have + go
to fly away	날아 가다 *na-ra ka-da*	fly + go

9. There is a wide range of sound symbolic words which describe vividly everything from different shades of color to different motions of walk. To name a few sound symbolic expressions for "walking" motion:

아장 아장 *a-jang a-jang*	baby walk
어정 어정 *eo-jeong eo-jeong*	leisurely walk
상큼 상큼 *sang-k'eum sang-k'eum*	light steps
성큼 성큼 *seong-k'eum seong-k'eum*	big steps
비틀 비틀 *pi-t'eul pi-t'eul*	tottering
총총 *ch'ong ch'ong*	quick pace
설렁 설렁 *seul-leong seul-leong*	lazy walk
저벅 저벅 *cheo-beok cheo-beok*	heavy steps

There are two sets of vowels: one conveys the feeling of smallness or brightness and positive aspects (**a** and **o**), and another conveys the feeling of largeness or darkness and negative aspects (**eo** and **u**).

파랑 *p'**a**-rang*	clear and pretty blue
아장 아장 ***a**-jang **a**-jang*	baby walk (small, pretty, cute motion)
퍼렁 *p'**eo**-reong*	dull blue
어정 어정 ***eo**-jeong **eo**-jeong*	leisurely walk (slow, big, and cumbersome motion)

Consonants also convey varying degrees of intensity, as in:

살살 아프다 *sal sal a-p'eu-da*	mildly painful
쌀쌀 아프다 *ssal ssal a-p'eu-da*	sharply painful

Note that the vowel *a* indicates *clear, pretty,* and *bright*, a positive quality; but the vowel *eo* indicates *dull, slow,* and *cumbersome*, a negative quality. The consonant *s* indicates *mild* pain while the consonant *ss* indicates *sharp* pain.

10. While English demonstratives have a two-way distinction of *this* and *that*, Korean demonstratives have a three-way distinction of *i* 이, (this) near the speaker; *keu* 그, (that) near the hearer; and *cheo* 저, (that over there) away from the speaker and the hearer.
11. Asking a negative question in English to a newly arrived Korean student could cause confusion. In Korean conversation a negative question such as, "**Aren't** you going to school today?" would elicit, "**Yes** (your question is correct), I am not going to school today." In English, however, the respondent would say, "**No**, I am not going to school today." The logic of answering yes-no questions in Korean is based on whether the question is true or false (whether I agree with your question or not). That is, if one asks in Korean, "**Aren't** you a student from Korea?" a Korean student would respond, "**No** (the question is not correct), I am a student from Korea." This logic is often carried over into English in responding to yes-no questions, creating confusion between the questioner and the respondent. Therefore, asking newly arrived Korean students positively phrased questions will minimize this kind of confusion.

Differences Between Korean and English Syntax

Syntax refers to the structure of sentences in a language. This section presents various aspects of Korean syntax: word order, grammatical functions, prepositions, modifiers, the omission of nouns, and relative pronouns.

1. In Korean the word order for basic sentences is subject-object-verb (S-O-V); in English, subject-verb-object (S-V-O). Thus,

typologically, Korean is said to be an S-O-V language and English an S-V-O language. In the example that follows, note how *ga* marks the subject and *reul* the object.

	고양이가	쥐를	먹었다
The cat ate the mouse.	*ko-yang-i-**ga***	*chwi-**reul***	*meo-geot-ta.*
subject verb object	cat	mouse	ate
	subject	object	verb

2. Grammatical elements in Korean, such as subject, object (direct or indirect), and location, are indicated by the attachments of particles to the nouns in a sentence. As a result, one can move nouns around without changing the basic meaning of the sentence. For instance, in the preceding example it is clearly stated as to who ate whom. That fact will not change even if *cat* and *mouse* are transposed in position in Korean as long as the particles, *ga* 가 and *reul* 를, remain where they were (see 2a and 2b following). On the other hand, if *the cat* and *a mouse* are transposed in English, the sentence no longer means what it said originally (see 1a and 1b following).

		고양이가	쥐를	먹었다.
1a. The **cat** ate **the mouse.**	2a.	**ko-yang-i**-ga	**cwi**-reul	meog-eot-ta.
		cat	mouse	ate
		The cat ate the mouse.		
		쥐를	고양이가	먹었다.
1b. **The mouse** ate **the cat**.	2b.	***cwi**-reul*	***ko-yang-i**-ga*	*meog-eot-ta.*
		mouse	cat	ate
		The cat ate the mouse.		

In English, word order also plays an important role in making different types of sentences; for example, "You are a student," a declarative sentence, becomes "Are you a student?" when *you* and *are* are transposed. In Korean this change is made by the use of different verb endings rather than a different word order.

	너는	학생	이다.
You are a student.	*neo-neun*	*hak-saeng*	*i-**da**.*
	you	student	are (statement)

	너는	학생	이냐?
Are you a student?	*neo-neun*	*hak-saeng*	*i-**nya**?*
	you	student	are (question)

3. In place of prepositions in English, Korean has postpositions that follow nouns as in *school-to* (to school) and *pen-with* (with a pen), as in:

I go **to school**	나는	학교에	매일	간다.
everyday.	*na-neun*	***hak-kyo-e***	*mae-il*	*kan-da.*
	I	school to	everyday	go
I wrote the letter	나는	편지를	펜으로	썼다.
with a pen.	*na-neun*	*p'yeon-ji-reul*	***p'en-eu-ro***	*sseot-ta.*
	I	letter	pen with	wrote

4. Modifiers such as adjectives or adverbs always precede the word modified. In English and Korean, adjectives always come before a noun; but, unlike the placement of adverbs in English, adverbs in Korean must come before a verb. This rule may have something to do with the fact that in Korean the verb always must come last in a sentence.

big tree	큰 나무 ***k'eun** na-mu*
young child	어린 아이 ***eo-rin** a-i*
(She/he) walks **fast**.	빨리 걷는다. ***ppal-li** keon-neun-da.*
(She/he) writes **well**.	글을 잘 쓴다. *keu-reul **chal** sseun-da.*
(The) **young** child writes **well**.	어린 아이가 글을 잘 쓴다. ***eo-rin** a-i-ga keu-reul **chal** sseun-da.*

5. The preceding examples show that the subjects are missing, as indicated by *she/he* in parentheses. On many occasions subject nouns or object nouns are missing in Korean conversations. The reason is that nouns and pronouns disappear in a conversation

once the identity of the subject or object has been established at the beginning of the dialogue. Therefore, it is common in Korean conversation to hear only the verb phrases or predicates of sentences.

6. No relative pronouns in Korean are comparable to the English *who, which, that,* or *what*. Clauses become subordinate when verb suffixes known as verbal modifiers are added because these suffixes come before the word modified, such as a noun or a main clause. For example, in the sentence, "The student who attends school wins a prize," the clause *who attends school* is placed in Korean before *the student* so that the word order in English appears as "school-attending-student." Since *who attends school* describes or modifies *the student*, this clause comes before *the student*. This aspect of Korean syntax is presented below with the examples showing the modifier preceding the word or group of words being modified. *VM* stands for *verbal modifier* in the following examples:

	학교에	다니는	학생	
the student **who**	***hak-kyo-e***	***ta-ni-neun***	*hak-saeng*	
attends school	school to	go-VM	student	
	내가	지은	집	
the house **that**	***nae-ga***	***chi-eun***	*chip*	
I built	I	build-past VM	house	
	내가	지은	집을	팔았다.
I sold the house	***nae-ga***	***chi-eun***	*chib-eul*	*p'a-rat-ta.*
that I built.	I	build-past VM	house	sold

Phonology and Phonetics in Korean and English

Just as grammatical structures in Korean and English are distinct from each other, so are their phonologies, or speech sounds. Korean consonants and vowels differ from those in English not only in pronunciation but also in the way in which they combine to form utterances and cause changes when certain sounds come together. Phonological features of Korean that contrast with those of English will be discussed in this section.[1]

---

[1] Phonological terminology in this section is defined in the Glossary.

Consonants in Korean and English. A chart showing Korean consonants appears below. Principles for pronouncing Korean consonants follow.

1. The stops and affricates have three-way contrasts based on the degree of aspiration accompanying the pronunciation of the sounds:

a. Stops and affricates with slight aspiration	*p*	*t*	*ch*	*k*
(These consonants are also pronounced *b, d, j, g*. See Item 2 on page 77.)				
b. Stops and affricates with heavy aspiration	*p'*	*t'*	*ch'*	*k'*
c. Stops and affricates with no aspiration	*pp*	*tt*	*jj*	*kk*

English stops, affricates, and fricative sounds are distinguished by the presence or absence of voicing, such as *p* versus *b* as in *p*in and

Korean Consonants

Types of consonants	*Labial*		*Alveolar*		*Palatal*		*Velar*	
Stops	***p/b***	ㅂ	***t /d***	ㄷ			***k/g***	ㄱ
Aspirated stops	***p'***	ㅍ	***t'***	ㅌ			***k'***	ㅋ
Tense unaspirated stops	***pp***	ㅃ	***tt***	ㄸ			***kk***	ㄲ
Affricates					***ch/j***	ㅈ		
Aspirated affricates					***ch'***	ㅊ		
Tense unaspirated affricates					***jj***	ㅉ		
Fricatives			***s***	ㅅ			***h***	ㅎ
Tense fricatives			***ss***	ㅆ				
Nasals	***m***	ㅁ	***n***	ㄴ			***ng***	ㅇ
Liquids			***r/l***	ㄹ				

*b*in, *t* versus *d* as in *t*ime and *d*ime, *k* versus *g* as in *c*old and *g*old, *dj* versus *ts* as in *g*in and *ch*in, and *f* versus *v* as in *f*ine and *v*ine. However, the Korean stops and affricates are distinguished by the degree of aspiration accompanying the articulation of the consonants. The consonants *p*, *t*, *k*, and *ch* are slightly aspirated; the consonants *p'*, *t'*, *k'*, and *ch'* are heavily aspirated; and the consonants *pp*, *tt*, *kk*, and *jj* are completely unaspirated, somewhat like the English *p*, *t*, *k* in words such as *sp*eed, *st*ory, and *sch*ool. The slightly aspirated consonants are also classified as lax because of the laxness of articulation; but the heavily aspirated and the completely unaspirated consonants are described as tense, referring to the relative tenseness of oral musculature in articulating these consonants. The consonants represented with double letters require glottal tension (Kim, 1990). The two fricative sounds ㅅ /*s*/ and ㅆ /*ss*/ are also characterized by the degree of aspiration (puff of air accompanying the articulation): ㅅ /*s*/ is more aspirated and ㅆ /*ss*/ is unaspirated.

The Korean letters with their equivalent sounds in English are given as follows:

ㅂ	p	Between the *p* in **puff** and the *b* in **boon**	*pi*	비	rain
	b	**boon**	*ka-bang*	가방	bag
ㅍ	p'	*p* as in **puff**	*p'al*	팔	arm
ㅃ	pp	*p* as in **speed**	*ppul*	뿔	horn
ㄷ	t	Between the *t* in **to** and *d* in **do**.	*tal*	달	moon
	d	*d* as in **do**	*eo-di*	어디	where
ㅌ	t'	*t* as in **toll**	*t'al*	탈	mask
ㄸ	tt	*t* as in **star**	*ttal*	딸	daughter
ㄱ	k	Between the *k* in **kiss** and the *g* in **guide**	*kong*	공	ball
	g	*g* as in **guide**	*ka-ge*	가게	store

ㅋ	k'	*k* as in **kite**	*k'al*	칼	knife
ㄲ	kk	*k* as in **school**	*kkum*	꿈	dream
ㅈ	ch	Between the *ch* in **church** and the *j* in **jump**	*cham*	잠	sleep
	j	*j* as in **jump**	*a-jeo-sshi*	아저씨	uncle
ㅊ	ch'	*ch* as in **church**	*ch'aek*	책	book
ㅉ	jj	Like the *j* in **jeep**	*jjak*	짝	mate
ㅅ	s	Like the *s* in **sigh** but with a lot of air	*sae*	새	bird
	sh	Like the *sh* in **shin**, but without lip rounding	*shi-jang*	시장	market
ㅆ	ss	*s* as in **seed** with very little air	*ssal*	쌀	rice
ㅎ	h	*h* as in **hot**	*ha-na*	하나	one
ㅁ	m	*m* as in **mother**	*mal*	말	horse
ㄴ	n	*n* as in **no**	*na*	나	I
ㅇ	ng	*ng* as in **sing**	*kang*	강	river
ㄹ	r	Close to the sound of *tt* in **butter**	*ra-di-o*	라디오	radio
	l	*l* as in **ill**	*mul*	물	water

2. There are voiced stops and affricates in Korean, but they occur only in certain positions in a word. The slightly aspirated stops *p*, *t*, *k*, and affricate *ch* are pronounced as *b*, *d*, *g*, and *j* when they occur between two vowels or after a voiced consonant (for example, nasal sounds and *l*) and are followed by another vowel; for example, *ka-**gae*** 가게 (store), *tae-**dap*** 대답 (answer), *po-**bae*** 보배 (treasure), and *chu-**jeon-ja*** 주전자 (tea-kettle). But because this automatic phonetic change does not affect the

meaning of words, the speakers of Korean do not seem to be aware of these consonants occurring in their language. The acquisition of such basic English words as *boy*, *girl*, or *dog*, which begin with a voiced stop or an affricate, such as *judge*, poses a great deal of difficulty to Korean-speaking students.

3. No indigenous words in Korean begin with either *r* or *l*. Only one letter-symbol ㄹ exists for both *r* and *l*, and their pronunciation is determined by the position of the letter. If the letter ㄹ comes at the beginning of a word or between two vowels, it is pronounced as *r*. In all other circumstances, it is pronounced as *l*.

   Although the phonetic difference is distinct with respect to *r* and *l*, Korean speakers often disregard the phonemic difference in English between the two sounds. English words that begin with *l*, such as *letter* and *line*, are often pronounced *retter* and *rine*. The few words that begin with *r* in the language are borrowed words; for example, *ro-t'a-ri* 로타리 (rotary), *rot-te* 롯데 (Lotte), and *ra-di-o* 라디오 (radio). Some surnames (frequently romanized as Rhee, Ree, Lee, Roh, or Ryu) that begin with an *r* or an *l* are actually pronounced in Korean as *i* for Rhee, Ree, or Lee; *no* for Roh; or *yu* for Ryu. Because these letters have the underlying Sino-Korean representation of *l*, they continue to be romanized with *r* or *l*.

4. There are three fricatives in Korean: *s*, *ss*, and *h*. The fricative sounds that occur in English such as *f, v, z,* ð , and θ are absent in Korean. Therefore, many beginning Korean students tend to substitute *p'* for *f* (*coffee* becoming *k'eo-p'i*), *b* for *v* (*TV* becoming *t'i-bi*), and either *ss* or *tt* for θ (*thank you* becoming *ssaeng-kyu* or *ttaeng-kyu,* and *three* becoming *ttri* or *ssri*). Perhaps one of the most difficult sounds to master for Korean students is the consonant *z*. Words such as *zipper*, *zoo*, *lazy*, and *crazy* are pronounced with substitutions of either *ch* or *j*, sounds which create an impression of harshness.

   Despite the great challenge that these sounds pose to Korean speakers, students in elementary schools and secondary schools seem to acquire the sounds with relative ease in comparison with adult learners.

5. Korean words do not begin with a consonant cluster. Although consonant clusters, such as *ks, ps, nh, nj, lg, lb, ls, lp', lt', lh,*

and *lm,* occur in the final position of a syllable, they do not occur at the beginning of a word. Even the consonant clusters at the end of the syllable are not fully pronounced when another consonant follows immediately after the cluster. (The section on syllables, page 82, contains further discussion about this topic.) English words that begin with consonant clusters such as *please*, *strong*, or *sphere*, as well as words containing any combination of *l* or *r* with *m* or *n* (that is, *lm, ln, ml, mr*, and *nl*) are difficult to pronounce for Korean-speaking students. English words such as *film*, *kiln*, *shameless*, *shamrock*, and *only* are examples of these clusters.

6. In Korean, stops, affricates, and fricatives are not released at the end of the syllable unless they are immediately followed by another vowel of the next syllable. They become neutralized as follows:

p, p', pp	—	*p*	*k, k', kk*	—	*k*
t, t', tt	—	*t*	*s, ss*	—	*t*
ch, ch', jj	—	*t*	*h*	—	*t*

A word such as 꽃 (flower) is pronounced *kkot,* and 낫 (sickle) is pronounced *nat.* For this reason Korean speakers sometimes tend to add another vowel, such as *i* or *eu,* at the end of words such as *lunch, bus,* or *bush* to be able to pronounce fully sounds such as *ch, s,* or *sh.* (More detail on this point is provided in the section on syllables in Korean that follows.)

Vowels in Korean and English. Korean has an eight-vowel system that is similar to the tongue position and vowel height of the English vowel system. Compare the following two sets of vowels:

Location of vowel	**Korean Vowels**			**English Vowels**		
	Front	*Central*	*Back*	*Front*	*Central*	*Back*
High	*i* ㅣ	*eu* ㅡ	*u* ㅜ	*i i:*		*u u:*
Mid	*e* ㅔ		*o* ㅗ	*e*	ə	*o*
Low	*ae* ㅐ	*a* ㅏ	*eo* ㅓ	*ae*	ʌ	*a*

In addition to the preceding eight vowels, there are six vowels combined with *w* (the vowel /oe/ is also pronounced [we]), six vowels combined with *y*, and a vowel *eui*. They are:

Front	*Central*	*Back*
wi ㅟ	*eui* ㅢ	*yu* ㅠ
we ㅞ *oe* ㅚ [we] *ye* ㅖ		*yo* ㅛ
wae ㅙ *yae* ㅒ	*wa* ㅘ *ya* ㅑ	*weo* ㅝ *yeo* ㅕ

The vowel-letter in *han-gul* ㅚ *oe* is often described as having the quality of the German vowel *ö*, but in the standard language, this letter is pronounced as *we*.

The Korean vowel letters with approximate sounds in English are illustrated as follows:

ㅣ	i	feel	*i-reum*	이름	name
ㅔ	e	pen	*ne*	네	yes
ㅐ	ae	cat	*sae*	새	bird
ㅏ	a	father	*a-i*	아이	child
ㅓ	eo	caught	*eo-di*	어디	where
ㅗ	o	only	*o-neul*	오늘	today
ㅜ	u	noon	*nun*	눈	eye
ㅡ	eu	look	*teul*	뜰	field
ㅟ	wi	we	*wi*	위	above
ㅞ	we	wet	*kwe*	궤	box
ㅚ	oe	wet	*oe-guk*	외국	foreign country
ㅙ	wae	quack	*wae*	왜	why

ㅖ	ye	yes	*ye-sun*	예순	sixty
ㅒ	yae	yam	*yae-gi*	얘기	story
ㅘ	wa	watt	*kwa-il*	과일	fruit
ㅑ	ya	yard	*yang*	양	lamb
ㅝ	weo	won	*weon-in*	원인	cause
ㅕ	yeo	young	*yeo-ja*	여자	woman
ㅛ	yo	yo-yo	*yo-jeum*	요즘	nowadays
ㅠ	yu	you	*yu-haeng*	유행	fashion
ㅢ	eui	tweet (without the lip-rounding)	*eui-sa*	의사	doctor

1. Vowel length used to be a distinctive feature of Korean, as seen in *nu:n* 눈 (snow) and *nun* 눈 (eye), and *ma:l* 말 (language) and *mal* 말 (horse). But the distinction is increasingly becoming confused and is at the point of being lost.
2. The vowels *e* and *ae* tend to merge into a vowel somewhere in between. So the words like *ke* 게 (crab) and *kae* 개 (dog) sound alike, and *ne* 네 (your) and *nae* 내 (my) are difficult to distinguish. This tendency seems to carry over to English so that *snake* and *snack* may sound alike. During the Olympic Games held in Los Angeles in 1984, the newspapers reported that the Korean athletes were broiling *snakes* when actually the Korean athletes meant to say that they were having *snacks*. Unfortunately, the snacks they were having were some kind of dried fish which appeared and smelled exotic enough to reinforce what the reporters had heard as snakes.
3. Korean speakers tend to delabialize vowels that are combined with *w*. Delabialization describes the process of flattening out the lips for vowels that are usually pronounced by rounding the lips. For example, *kwang-go* 광고 (advertisement) is rendered *kang-go*; and *cheon-wha* 전화 (telephone) is pronouced *cheon-*

ha. This tendency often transfers to English words, for which Korean speakers pronounce *language* as *langige* and *question* as *qestion*.

4. The contrast between short and long vowels in English is difficult for Korean speakers to pronounce and distinguish; for example, *it* and *eat*, *chip* and *cheap*, or *pull* and *pool*. Korean speakers tend to lengthen the short vowels and shorten the long ones. So *potato chip* might sound like *potato cheap*, and *book* might sound like *buuk*. On the other hand, *cheap* may be pronounced as *chip*, and *meat* as *mit*.
5. The retroflex quality of English vowels in words such as *girl*, *early*, and *Berlin* is extremely difficult to master for Korean speakers.

The syllable in Korean. Although the Korean writing system is alphabetic, consisting of consonant letters and vowel letters, the smallest unit of pronunciation is a syllable that contains at least one vowel. There are six types of syllables:

1. Vowel	*a*	아	*o*	오
2. Cons. + Vowel	*ka*	가	*no*	노
3. Cons. + Vowel + Cons.	*kam*	감	*non*	논
4. Cons. + Vowel + Cons. + Cons.	*kaps*	값	*tols*	돐
5. Vowel + Cons.	*an*	안	*il*	일
6. Vowel + Cons. + Cons.	*anj*	앉	*olh*	옳

As shown in the examples previously listed, the consonant clusters occur only after a vowel at the end of a syllable. The syllabic structure shows why English consonant clusters at the beginning and at the end of a word, such as *lunch*, *twelfth*, and *MacDonald*, are problematic for speakers of Korean. Secondly, since the smallest unit of pronunciation in Korean is a vowel, not a consonant, English words tend to gain syllables when pronounced by Koreans. For example, *Christmas* becomes *ku-ri-seu-ma-seu* (five syllables); *church* and *lunch* become *ch'eor-ch'i* and *leon-ch'i* and *yes* and *bus* become *ye-seu* and *beo-seu* (two syllables each).

Phonological rules in Korean. Korean is an agglutinative language in which a word is formed by the addition of one or more meaningful elements (suffixes, infixes, or prefixes) to the basic root or stem. For example, *ka-shin-da* 가신다 is a verb form indicating that someone honorific is going somewhere. The ending /-da/ reveals that the speaker is addressing someone younger or of the same age. The form is composed of the verb root *ka* (go) 가 ; *shi* 시 , which specifies that the subject of the verb is someone whom the speaker considers older or higher in status to both the speaker and the listener; *n* ㄴ , which indicates the present tense; and *da* 다 , which signals that the speaker is finished with the sentence and that the sentence is a statement.

When grammatical elements are combined in this way, many phonological changes occur that are unique to Korean. Most of these changes are predictable and regular and are phonetically determined. Some of these phonetic changes are discussed in this section because they may affect the learning of English by Korean-speaking students.

1. **Assimilation of *l***: In Korean *n* is always assimilated to *l* when *n* is next to *l*. When the sequence *n-l* or *l-n* occurs between the syllables, the combination will be changed to *l-l*. For example, the ancient kingdom of Korea is pronounced *Shil-la* 신라 instead of *Shin-la*. Another illustration is a compound noun composed of *tal* 달 (moon) and *nara* 나라 (nation). The *l-n* sequence is changed to *ll*, giving the pronunciation *tal-la-ra*. When Korean speakers encounter similar *l-n* combinations, they often apply the same change. For example, a word like *walnut* may be pronounced *wallut* and *only* pronounced *olly* or *onny*.
2. **Nasal assimilation of stops, affricates, and fricatives**: The preceding section on consonants presents the concept that all stops, affricates, and fricatives are unreleased at the end of a syllable and become neutralized to *p, t,* and *k* according to their points of articulation. They are then subject to nasal assimilation if the consonant immediately following is a nasal consonant, such as *m* or *n*. Their sound is replaced by *m, n,* or *ng*.

   The following are examples of this nasal assimilation. In these cases, *p, t,* and *k* are nazalized by the nasal sound that follows them.

잡는다 *chap-neun-da*	(to catch or hold) is pronounced *cham-neun-da*
받는다 *pat-neun-da*	(to receive) is pronounced *pan-neun-da*
먹는다 *meok-neun-da*	(to eat) is pronounced *meong-neun-da*
짖는다 *chit-neun-da*	(to bark) is pronounced *chin-neun-da*
웃는다 *ut-neun-da*	(to laugh) is pronounced *un-neun-da*
낳는다 *nat-neun-da*	(to give birth) is pronounced *nan-neun-da*

This rule illustrates that Korean has no sequences of consonants such as *pm* or *pn*, *tm* or *tn*, *km* or *kn*, *chm* or *chn*, *sm* or *sn*, *hm* or *hn*. This rule is so automatic for Korean speakers that it is frequently applied in English and results in incorrect pronunciation; for example, *baen-maen* for "batman," *whin-ni* for "Whitney," and *ch'im-meong-k'eu* for "chipmunk."

Stress in Korean and English. Stress can change the meaning of words in English; for example, *pérmit* (noun) and *permít* (verb), *cóntract* (noun) and *contráct* (verb). In Korean, however, stress is not phonemic; that is, stress in a word does not cause its meaning to change. Generally, Korean words are spoken with the stress on the first syllable, and the rest of the word receives about equal stress. In English, stress is accompanied by a difference in pitch. Highly stressed syllables are also slightly higher in tone. In Korean, stress is not accompanied by a difference in pitch. In comparison with English speakers, Koreans often appear to speak in a monotone.

Korean speakers who are learning English are often baffled by the variety of stress patterns, especially the alternating and penultimate stress patterns in English and the tendency for slightly stressed or unstressed vowels to be reduced to ə in a word like *bá̲nana̲*. Koreans would pronounce each of the syllables in *banana* equally in stress and length. Because stress and intonation are learned quite early in life, they are deeply engrained and require the student of a new language to overcome powerfully rooted linguistic habits.

***Intonation patterns in Korean*.** There are two major intonation patterns in standard Korean, the rising pattern for questions requiring yes/no answers and the falling pattern for declarative sentences or *wh*-questions. Despite the great differences between the stress patterns of English and Korean, the intonation patterns share a basic similarity, and Korean intonation patterns should not interfere with the Korean student's learning of English intonation patterns.

Han-gul: The Korean Writing System

The vowels and consonants of Korean sounds are well represented by the Korean alphabet, *han-gul*. This alphabet, promulgated in 1446 at the behest of King Sejong of the Chosun Kingdom, is unique among the world's writing systems in several aspects. First, it is the earliest phonetic writing system invented in Asia. As an invented system, *han-gul* differs from Chinese and Western alphabets that evolved over time. Second, it is one of the most scientific alphabets, representing the sounds of the language it is designed for. It is a "unique and practical application of linguistic theories . . . [predating] . . . by several hundred years the now highly developed linguistic science of Western Europe . . ." (Pihl, 1983, p. 119). Third, the design of consonant symbols is believed to be based on the shape of the human mouth and its manner of articulation. Fourth, it has a philosophical basis in the way that the vowels represent heaven, man, and earth (Lee, 1983; Kim, 1983).

The 10 basic vowels and 14 simple consonants in *han-gul* expand to 21 vowels and 19 consonants for a total of 40 symbols in combination.

Vowels

ㅏ	ㅑ	ㅓ	ㅕ	ㅗ	ㅛ	ㅜ	ㅠ	ㅡ	ㅣ	
a	*ya*	*eo*	*yeo*	*o*	*yo*	*u*	*yu*	*eu*	*i*	
ㅐ	ㅒ	ㅔ	ㅖ	ㅘ	ㅚ	ㅙ	ㅟ	ㅝ	ㅞ	ㅢ
ae	*yae*	*e*	*ye*	*wa*	*we*	*wae*	*wi*	*weo*	*we/o*	*eui*

Consonants

ㄱ	ㄴ	ㄷ	ㄹ	ㅁ	ㅂ	ㅅ	ㅇ	ㅈ	ㅊ	ㅋ
k	*n*	*t*	*l*	*m*	*p*	*s*	*ng*	*ch*	*ch'*	*k'*
ㅌ	ㅍ	ㅎ	ㄲ	ㄸ	ㅃ	ㅆ	ㅉ			
t'	*p'*	*h*	*kk*	*tt*	*pp*	*ss*	*jj*			

These symbols are written in syllables, putting the final syllabic consonant or consonants under the symbols, as in:

ㄱ + ㅏ —> 가 ("Go!") CV
k + *a* —> *ka*

ㅁ + ㅏ + ㄹ —> 말 (horse) CVC
m + *a* + *l* —> *mal*

ㅁ + ㅏ + ㄹ + ㄱ - 다 —> 맑다 (to be clear) CV
CC
m + *a* + *l* + *g* - *ta* —> *malg-ta*

Alphabet for Han-gul

Consonants

Vowels

	ㄱ	ㄴ	ㄷ	ㄹ	ㅁ	ㅂ	ㅅ	ㅇ	ㅈ	ㅊ	ㅋ	ㅌ	ㅍ	ㅎ
ㅏ	가	나	다	라	마	바	사	아	자	차	카	타	파	하
ㅑ	갸	냐	댜	랴	먀	뱌	샤	야	쟈	챠	캬	탸	퍄	햐
ㅓ	거	너	더	러	머	버	서	어	저	처	커	터	퍼	허
ㅕ	겨	녀	뎌	려	며	벼	셔	여	져	쳐	켜	텨	펴	혀
ㅗ	고	노	도	로	모	보	소	오	조	초	코	토	포	호
ㅛ	교	뇨	됴	료	묘	뵤	쇼	요	죠	쵸	쿄	툐	표	효
ㅜ	구	누	두	루	무	부	수	우	주	추	쿠	투	푸	후
ㅠ	규	뉴	듀	류	뮤	뷰	슈	유	쥬	츄	큐	튜	퓨	휴
ㅡ	그	느	드	르	므	브	스	으	즈	츠	크	트	프	흐
ㅣ	기	니	디	리	미	비	시	이	지	치	키	티	피	히

Korean is written either horizontally or vertically. The vertical writing traditionally goes from right to left; therefore, books are opened with the binding to the right of the reader, rather than to the left as in books written in English.

Sample writings from Korean books:

***Han-gul*-only Edition**

조선 초기의 문화적 업적 중에서 민족 문화사상 가장 중요한 일은 한글을 창제하여 민족 고유의 문자를 마련한 것이다. 세종대왕은. 우리 고유의 말에 알맞으며. 배우기 쉽고. 자유로이 자기 생각을 적을 수 있는 우리 글을 만들기 위해 노력하였다. 그리하여. 훈민정음을 1446년에 반포하여 우리 민족은 우리의 슬기를 마음껏 펼 수 있게 되었다.

***Han-gul* and Chinese Characters**

中國에는 예부터 전해 오는 兵法에 관한 책으로、「武經七書」또는 간단히「七書」라고 하는 게 있다。「孫子」「吳子」「司馬法」「尉繚子」「李衛公問對」「黃石公三略」「六韜」이렇게 일곱이다。

그중 여섯은 모두 저자의 이름이 책 제목으

Interrelationships Between Language and Culture

The preceding discussion of the linguistic aspects of the Korean language provides important insights into Korean thought. This section describes Korean cultural patterns reflected in the Korean language. According to Heath (1986, pp. 145–146), language and culture are inseparable phenomena that underlie the life of a people:

> . . . all language learning is cultural learning: Children do not learn merely the building blocks of their mother tongue—its sounds, words, and order; they learn also how to use language to get what they want, protect themselves, express their wonderings and worries, and ask questions about the world.

By examining the linkages between language and culture, educators can sharpen their understanding of how Koreans view themselves and their relationships with others.

Influences of Confucian Values

Acceptable norms for behavior in the Korean family and society are strongly influenced by the prevailing philosophies of East Asia, especially the teachings of the Chinese philosopher Confucius (sixth century B.C.) (Osgood, 1951). Confucius focused significantly on the need to maintain social order through nurturing and preserving the five relationships that exist between the following:

1. Ruler and subject
2. Parent and child (includes the teacher-student relationship)
3. Husband and wife
4. Older person and younger person
5. Friend and friend

Teachers in the United States should note that most Korean Americans try to preserve these relationships. Each of these relationships, viewed as hierarchical, requires appropriate behavior for each member involved. Appropriate behavior includes the use of honorific or plain forms of language that must be observed, depending on one's place in the carefully structured relationships. Thus,

> . . . a son should be reverential; a younger person respectful; a wife submissive; a subject loyal. And, reciprocally, a father should be strict and loving; an older person wise and gentle; a husband good and understanding; a ruler righteous and benevolent; and friends trusting and trustworthy. In other words, one is never alone when one acts, since every action affects someone else (Kim, Lee, and Kim, 1981).

Koreans' interest in these relationships is at the root of their view of how society should function and of their caution before they interact outside the family. Since Koreans are aware that their actions will inevitably affect someone else, they want to ensure that their impact on others will be as they intend. An awareness of these relationships will help educators in America understand the respect Korean parents and students have for teachers and other school officials.

Confucian attitudes also profoundly influence relationships between the sexes and the generations. Perceptions about the proper role for women in the family and society, the language that women use, and behavior that is expected of them are governed by deep-seated traditional views that are only recently beginning to change in Korean society. Korean Americans face significant adjustments when confronting contemporary mores in the United States that emphasize democratic values and equality in relationships, even across generational lines. Korean immigrants will benefit from information and strategies to help them understand the values that their children are acquiring in school, such as open communication, shared decision making, and equality of relationships.

Honorific Speech Patterns

In any language certain linguistic and nonlinguistic devices express the speaker's attitude toward the person spoken about or the person to whom the speech is addressed. In both the vocabulary and grammar of Korean, various levels of politeness exist. Depending on the relative status of the speaker, the person spoken to, and the person or thing spoken about, the speaker may choose different words and forms to express intended meanings. For many of the basic verbs, such as *give*, *eat*, and *sleep*, at least two Korean words are available, each reflecting a different status of the subject or the object of the verb. Each verb in Korean is further transformed by a choice of endings, each option adding the same grammatical information (such as verb tense) but carrying different levels of politeness or deference. Many nouns that refer to the household or to kinship also have a plain version and an honorific version. Thus, when talking about one's own house, a speaker will use a modest word for *house*, but when referring to the house of someone of higher status, the speaker will use the honorific word for *house*. Understanding this system of honorific speech is essential for speakers of Korean.

Honorific speech and pronouns. To a great extent, honorific speech in Korean has the same function as do pronouns in English. Since the polite verb form for *go* is used in face-to-face conversation to mean *(you) go* and the humble form is used to mean *(I) go*, the subject or reference is clear without a pronoun. The Korean language does not use pronouns in the same way as does English. Although there are ways of referring to *I*, *me*, *you*, *your*, *he*, *hers*, and so on, these terms are avoided as much as possible in polite speech. Using *you* or *your* is especially bad form when one is speaking directly to a person who commands respect, such as a teacher. If necessary, the speaker will use the title when addressing the person: *Will the teacher go?* meaning *Will you go?*

The Korean speaker who is new to California and just learning English may grope for ways to be polite in the new language. This person may avoid using pronouns such as *you* and *I* and look for distinctions among synonyms that can lend more politeness to speech. Of course, because vocabulary is relatively undifferentiated in English (everybody simply *goes* and a *house* is a *house* whether it is mine or yours), the use of pronouns is essential. Korean speakers also have to adjust to the gender reflected in pronouns because such distinctions do not exist between *him* and *her* and *his* and *hers* in Korean. The natural usage of pronouns with verbs and nouns undistinguished in levels of politeness may need to be modeled and reinforced for native speakers of Korean. Likewise, while *residence* is a more formal word than *house*, its use in conversation ("Where is your residence?") sounds more stilted than polite. To help the Korean native speaker feel comfortable in English, speakers of English can model and practice natural usage, steering the student away from artificially formal English. Methods of adding politeness are to be found in English usage but certainly not by a direct application of the distinctions that are found in Korean.

Honorific speech and social propriety. In speaking Korean, a person's improper word choice or verb inflection may constitute a social breach. A speaker may inadvertently insult the listener by using the wrong speech forms. Coming from this background, Korean speakers may be especially anxious about making mistakes in English. Korean students and their parents who are hesitant about speaking English as a second language might well be reassured that grammatical mistakes in English rarely constitute a personal affront.

The full development of the Korean language in a native speaker must include a knowledge of and ability to use the honorific and polite styles of speech as well as other styles in socially appropriate contexts. Children learn different speech styles from the family, school, and community. By the time a child reaches junior high school, he or she is generally proficient in using polite speech and honorific words. The acquisition of speech styles continues well into adulthood.

When children grow up in an environment where diverse sociolinguistic relationships are absent—in family, in school, and in the community—one cannot expect the same kind of linguistic development from them as from the children growing up in Korea. Therefore, although it is advisable to encourage the children to learn polite and honorific speech, the lack of these forms should not become the basis for evaluating one's Korean language proficiency.

One of the important goals of a Korean language arts program is to preserve respect for and the mastery of the use of levels of politeness. A common observation made by Korean-American students who are studying Korean during their college years is that, although they learned to use intimate and informal speech in the home, they never learned the proper command of honorific forms that would enable them to speak confidently as adults outside the family setting. In Korea honorific patterns are mastered before students reach junior high school. Even when a six-year-old Korean-speaking child knows all the basic vocabulary and syntax of Korean, the child will just be starting the important transition from the informal style of children's speech to the distinctions in levels of politeness and style of competent adult speech. If the primary language development of a Korean child between the ages of six and twelve is interrupted, the child's use of honorific forms in Korean most likely will be sacrificed. (For more on Korean language development, see Chapter IV.)

Customs of Offering and Declining

Many social customs that demonstrate respect, generosity, and humility often significantly influence the way people express themselves and interact with others. The general rule in Korea is that the first offer an individual makes is a socially important gesture but is not necessarily to be taken literally. Offers that are repeated several times or a reiterated "No, thank you" are regarded as a true expression of the speaker's feelings or intentions. Americans, accustomed to assuming that outward behavior reflects inward feelings, more likely will accept the genuineness of a person's gestures or statements and will be less apt to view them as being based on an adherence to culturally dictated conduct. This cultural tradition in the United States differs distinctly from the cultural assumptions of Koreans, and the difference has major implications for those who must operate in cross-cultural environments, particularly in an American school setting.

Koreans also express humility and modesty by saying something like "Not at all" or "I am ashamed" when they are congratulated (Chu, 1983). Koreans may transfer these expressions to English when someone says, "You speak English well" or "You have a beautiful house." Similarly, Koreans avoid boasting of their own achievements or possessions. They may speak instead of their poor English ability or their children's lack of diligence.

In the classroom differing cultural assumptions appear in many forms. The teacher may have to offer assistance several times before the student understands that the teacher is really willing to help. A Korean parent may have to be invited to class several times or be asked to provide specific assistance; for example, to demonstrate some aspect of Korean culture. Such persistence will assure the parent that the invitation is not simply the teacher's expression of politeness. Newly arrived Korean students or parents may at first seem reluctant to join in some activity or to accept any form of outreach, but repeated invitations will make the offer seem clearly genuine to the Koreans.

In bridging these cultural differences, Korean Americans should be careful about the offers they make or decline because Americans may take their statements literally. At the same time the American has to learn to appreciate a generous offer from a Korean and to consider declining the offer the first time, with the understanding that it is truly the thought that counts. Only after several insistent invitations will the American know that the offer is genuine. The American will likewise understand that a Korean may politely decline the first invitation. An invitation that is repeated several times is recognized as serious and may be accepted after all. A rule of thumb may be to offer or decline at least three times to convey sincere intentions.

Use of Questions for Koreans

In the midst of a great cultural emphasis on harmony and respect in Korea, one speaker will rarely contradict another directly or even answer a question with a direct no. Conventionally, even questions in Korean are phrased to allow the respondent to avoid saying no, because culturally it is important to offer a soothing or placating response rather than to confront or offend. In English–language arts, teachers may want to help students convey negative answers with words other than no. (See also the earlier discussion in this chapter in the section entitled "Differences Between Korean and English Grammar.")

School staff should be attentive to implicit rather than explicit answers of no from Koreans. A response, such as "That's a good idea," is not necessarily a commitment to cooperate. Other examples include comments, such as "Well, that's interesting" or "Very good," or a smile and nod without any accompanying expressed agreement. Teachers can avoid misunderstandings by asking open-ended questions rather than questions that require a possible answer of no or by following up on the matter with detailed questioning to reveal deeper feelings or intentions. Teachers can help students deal with this issue by modeling sensitive and natural ways of saying no in English.

Educators who ask questions to seek opinions from Korean students or adults may have trouble eliciting accurate information. In responding to an older person or a higher authority, many Koreans are reluctant to express their own opinions; instead, they may attempt to provide the response that they think the questioner wants to hear. Recent immigrant students and adults will need assistance from educators in recognizing that an essential part of functioning in school is learning how to express opinions and support beliefs.

The Meaning of Korean Names

Although there are 232 surnames in Korea, over 53 percent of the population has one of the five major surnames: Kim (21 percent), Lee/Rhee/Yi (15 percent), Park/Pak (8 percent), Choi/Choe/Chey (5 percent), and Chung/Jung (4 percent) (Park, 1980). Most individual, or given, names have two characters. Usually, one of the names identifies the generation, and the other indicates the individual's given name. For example, in a family of three children, their names might be Kim Sung Shik, Kim Sung Ja, and Kim Sung Chul.

Kim is the surname, *Sung* identifies the generation, and *Shik*, *Ja*, and *Chul* name each individual. Sometimes the generational name and given name appear in reverse order, but in Korea (as in China and Japan) the surname always comes first. In choosing names for their children, parents may select names that are either pure Korean or have corresponding Chinese characters that represent the Korean name. Because surnames come last in the United States, Korean family names and given names are often inadvertently confused. Unlike most persons in the United States, Koreans have no middle name. In the case of Kim Sung Shik, the child uses Sung Shik as the first or given name and Kim as the last name. In this case a child will be called Sung Shik by teachers in Korea. Teachers in the United

States should call children by their full given names unless parents or the students have adopted a different convention. Among adults, Koreans always go by their family names with the appropriate title of "Mister," "Ms.," or "Doctor."

Koreans do not call people by their first names unless the person called is lower in rank or younger or unless they are very close friends (Chu, 1983). Given names are used by parents when they talk to their children or by older family friends and relatives when they speak to or about their children. Rather than using names, Koreans rely on terms of kinship when they address or refer to older people. For example, the Korean equivalents of *older sister*, *older brother*, *aunt*, *uncle*, *grandmother*, and *grandfather* are used instead of names. Even spouses avoid using each other's names; for example, parents of a child named Sung Shik may refer to one another as Sung Shik's father or Sung Shik's mother in conversations with others.

In Korea students commonly address their teacher as *seon-saeng-nim,* rather than as Mr. Kim, the conventional English form. For this reason recent immigrant students often greet their teacher as "Teacher," dropping the surname. Teachers should interpret this short form of address as a problem in generalizing from Korean to English, not as a grammatical error or sign of disrespect.

Parents who have arrived recently from Korea would not expect to be called by their first names by school personnel, and teachers should avoid using given names when addressing adults. Korean parents would not expect to use the first name of a teacher or principal. Of course, part of the cultural experience in California is adjusting oneself to different definitions of formality in school and elsewhere. In this respect the school staff can help the recently immigrated Korean student and parents understand the use of American names, and all can agree on what everyone may call each other. Use of Korean-style names can be modeled and reinforced during Korean language activities. Regardless of the convention chosen, people need to make every effort to pronounce Korean names clearly and completely. Teachers will make positive impressions on students and parents by learning to pronounce their names accurately.

Demeanor in Korean Behavior

In a society where Confucianism has played a dominant role in shaping the traditional standards of morality and value judgments, a child in a Korean family learns the importance of respecting and deferring to parents and to others who are older and in positions of higher status. Most decisions directly or indirectly affecting the child are made by the parents or other older members of the family. In the presence of elders, children are expected to maintain a sense of humility and avoid talkative behavior. Although Koreans value expressive verbal ability, they are expected to acquire it through emulation of others and interaction with equals, not by engaging in arguments and debate with elders. For a Korean to insist on his or her own opinion during an exchange with a superior is unacceptable behavior, whether the opinion is right or wrong. Koreans are rewarded for reflecting established standards of proper verbal and nonverbal deportment, not for developing unique, spontaneous expressions of individuality.

Korean students in the United States may appear reluctant to participate in classroom discussions or express themselves publicly unless they are strongly encouraged to do so (Chu, 1983). Their reserved demeanor should not be interpreted as a lack of linguistic or academic ability. Teachers in the United States should patiently encourage students to join in classroom activities gradually to minimize students' embarrassment and to bolster their self-confidence. Teachers may also use varied means for confirming the students' comprehension, such as asking questions of individual students rather than depending totally on volunteered responses from only a handful of students.

Other Nonverbal Behaviors

Koreans and Americans use different nonverbal behaviors to express meanings. Students need to explore these differences to become sensitive to the various ways that meanings can be conveyed. Questions that teachers might use to stimulate discussions about nonverbal messages are as follows:

1. How does one signal "Come here" in English and in Korean? Americans curl their index finger with the palm facing up; Koreans cup the hand with the palm down and draw the fingers toward the palm. When a teacher in the United States waves good-bye by moving his or her hand up and down, Korean students may interpret the gesture as a signal to come.

2. What happens when a person sneezes? In Korea nothing is said that would focus attention on the individual; Americans frequently will say, “Bless you.”
3. What sounds do animals make in Korean and English? Koreans and Americans have different ways of representing animal sounds. For example, Koreans indicate the sound of a dog as “mong, mong” unlike the “arf, arf” of English.
4. How do individuals react to having their picture taken? Korean adults often project a solemn expression in photographs, while their American counterparts usually smile enthusiastically.
5. How do students greet their teachers? Students in Korea stand up and bow when a teacher enters the room.
6. What about eye contact? When talking to older people, Korean children may not look straight into their eyes; instead, the children may hold their eyes and head down to show respect.
7. How do students count from one to ten? Americans start with a closed fist and extend the fingers to represent the count; Koreans start with an open hand and draw the fingers to the palm.
8. What questions are appropriate to ask when meeting someone for the first time? Koreans may ask a number of personal questions to determine their relative status with the other person. Americans, on the other hand, are more guarded in initial meetings, preferring to talk about the weather or sports.

Implications Regarding Language and Culture

Even while the level of conversation may be verbal, many nonverbal conventions occur at all times in English and in Korean. Educators need to know the cultural antecedents of verbal expression to make more accurate judgments about the needs of Korean children and their parents. Educators and Korean-American immigrants can offer mutually supportive resources as they expand their knowledge of each other. Korean parents need encouragement to take advantage of school resources to facilitate their adjustment to living in the United States. Through involvement in Korean-American communities, educators can become knowledgeable resources for Korean students. Improved cultural knowledge will help Koreans and Americans understand each other and develop mutually supportive and satisfying relationships.

Selected References

Chu, Harold S. "Linguistic Interferences in Acquisition of English as a Second Language for Korean Limited-English-Proficient Students," in *Theory, Technology, and Public Policy on Bilingual Education.* Edited by Raymond V. Padilla. Rosslyn, Va.: National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education, 1983, pp. 233–251.

Gleason, Jr., H. A. *An Introduction to Descriptive Linguistics.* New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1955.

Heath, Shirley Brice. "Sociocultural Contexts of Language Development," in *Beyond Language: Social and Cultural Factors in Schooling Language Minority Students.* Developed by the Bilingual Education Office, California State Department of Education. Los Angeles: Evaluation, Dissemination, and Assessment Center, California State University, 1986, pp. 143--186.

Kim, Chin-U. "The Making of the Korean Language," in *The Korean Language.* Seoul: The Korean National Commission for UNESCO. 1983, pp. 13–42.

Kim, Kenneth Kong-On; Kapson Lee; and Tai-Yul Kim. *Korean-Americans in Los Angeles: Their Concerns and Language Maintenance.* Los Alamitos, Calif.: National Center for Bilingual Research, 1981.

Kim, Nam-Kil. "Korean," in *The World's Major Languages.* Edited by Bernard Comrie. New York: Oxford University Press, 1990, pp. 881–898.

Lee, Ki-moon. "Foundations of Hunmin Chongum," in *The Korean Language.* Seoul: The Korean National Commission of UNESCO, 1983, pp. 71–79.

__________. "Foundations of the Korean Language," *History of Korean Culture,* Vol. 5 (1967), 9–112. (In Korean).

Lewin, Bruno. "Japanese and Korean: The Problems and History of a Linguistic Comparison," *The Journal of Japanese Studies,* Vol. 2 (1976), 389–412.

Osgood, Cornelius. *The Koreans and Their Culture.* New York: Charles E. Tuttle Co., 1951.

Park, A.K. "An Analysis of Korean Names." *Sung Kyun Kwan University Journal,* 1980.

Pihl, Marshall R., Jr. "The Alphabet of East Asia," *The Korean Language.* Seoul: The Korean National Commission for UNESCO, 1983, pp. 109–120.

Poppe, Nicholaus N. *Introduction to Altaic Linguistics.* Wiesbaden: Otto Harrassowitz, 1965.

Ramstedt, G. J. *Studies in Korean Etymology.* Helsinki: Suomalais-Ugrilainen Seura, 1949.

Rogers, Michael; Clare You; and Kyungnyun K. Richards. *College Korean.* Berkeley: The University of California Press, 1992.

CHAPTER IV

Recommended Instructional and Curricular Strategies for Language Development

This chapter contains descriptions of elementary school and secondary school programs to develop students' bilingual abilities in English and Korean. Although the focus of the chapter is on providing instruction for Korean-American students, this information will also be useful in organizing activities for helping non-Korean students to develop a second or foreign language. This chapter will first present current approaches in language development, emphasizing those factors that contribute to learning how to speak, read, and write effectively. Next, a process for planning a Korean language program will be described. Finally, the chapter will provide descriptions of program alternatives for coordinating instruction in English and Korean.

The Goal of Bilingualism

Persons who can communicate in two languages have long been regarded as being well educated. Bilingualism provides many economic, social, and academic benefits. As interdependency among nations develops, the need increases for bilingual individuals. Korea is California's sixth largest export market after Canada, Japan, West Germany, Mexico, and the United Kingdom. The economic security of California and other states depends in part on the availability of individuals who are knowledgeable in Korean and other languages important for commerce.

Proficiency in Korean will enable students to communicate effectively with speakers of Korean, whether these individuals are business people, neighbors, or the students' own family members. This linguistic ability transfers to improved social and cross-cultural development as students become increasingly facile in interacting with Korean speakers.

Finally, evidence exists that bilingualism is associated with improved intellectual and academic performance. According to the California Department of Education's *Bilingual Education Handbook* (1990, p. 10), "Vital language skills and thinking processes can be most efficiently acquired in the home language, then applied to English, because language learning occurs holistically and builds on previous cognitive gains."

Comparisons of the academic skills of bilinguals and monolinguals with similar backgrounds show that bilinguals do better in tasks that demand cognitive flexibility and other higher level thinking processes. These metalinguistic abilities are found especially in individuals who have experienced additive bilingualism; that is, those who add a second language to their repertoire of abilities at no cost to the development of their first language (Cummins, 1989; Hakuta, 1986). When children learn subject matter through their native language, they experience double benefits. They not only strengthen their first language abilities but also develop a conceptual foundation that will facilitate their acquisition of the second language. Conceptual knowledge developed in one language makes instruction in the other language understandable (Cummins, 1989; Dolson, 1985; Krashen, 1981).

The approaches described in this chapter are based on a goal of developing students' bilingualism; that is, providing programs which develop the students' abilities to comprehend, speak, read, and write in two languages. The approaches are based on current theory and research, which indicate that methods for language development need to integrate "the more creative aspects of language learning and the more cognitive aspects that are susceptible to guidance and training" (McLaughlin, 1987, p. 165). In other words, experience, use, exposure, practice, and internal processing interact, leading to students' fluency and spontaneity in a first and second language. The language that students acquire is based on their experiences in formal instruction and in informal situations.

Diversity of Students

A great deal of diversity exists among children in the rate and amount of language they acquire. Variation in acquisition and performance "may be attributable to personality and social factors, as well as to individual differences in verbal ability" (Hakuta, 1986, p. 232). The success of learners is based on their own internal linguistic functioning, their access to opportunities that develop their linguistic system, and their cognitive and social functioning. Teachers face the challenge of responding effectively to students with diverse language abilities, multiple strategies for acquiring language, and different experiences in using language.

Some Korean-American students have limited abilities in Korean. They may have strong receptive skills but limited productive abilities. Other students may come from homes where their parents do not speak to them in Korean. For them learning Korean may constitute acquiring a *second* language. Other Korean students, especially those who have immigrated recently, need Korean language instruction that enhances their ability to speak, read, and write in Korean, their *native* language. Still other Korean language programs may include non-Korean students, students who are interested in learning Korean as a foreign or second language.

By helping Korean-American students to improve their proficiency in their native language, schools provide students with many academic and vocational advantages. California's *Foreign Language Framework* (1989) emphasizes the importance of providing instruction in the primary language of language-minority students as part of the foreign language curriculum. For example, students who speak Korean as their native language will enrich the foreign language program for students learning Korean for the first time and will themselves be better able to make the transition from a colloquial to a more formal command of the language. Another advantage is that Korean language classes satisfy the two-year foreign language entrance requirement for the University of California and the California

State University system, thus increasing students' access to higher education. Finally, instruction in Korean will enable students to meet the language and cultural demands associated with increased economic and cultural ties with Korea and other Pacific Rim countries.

Communicative-Based Approach

Traditional, teacher-centered instruction has dominated the experiences of all learners, including those from non-English language backgrounds. In this instruction "lecture, whole-class discussion, recitation, and individual seatwork prevail as the favored methods" (*Richness in Writing*, 1989, p. 39). These classroom patterns work against children who are attempting to learn language. Theory and research from the last two decades indicate that children's involvement in meaningful, communicative use of language is crucial for language development (*Richness in Writing*, 1989; Crawford, 1989; McLaughlin, 1987; Krashen, 1981).

Many labels have been attached to approaches that provide alternatives to teacher-centered, transmission-oriented instruction. The term *communicative-based* refers to a teaching approach that is aligned with much of what is known about language development. Richards and Rodgers (1986, p. 71) provide some of the characteristics of this view of language:

1. Language is a system for the expression of meaning.
2. The primary function of language is for interaction and communication.
3. The structure of language reflects its functional and communicative uses.
4. The primary units of language are not merely its grammatical and structural features, but categories of functional and communicative meaning as exemplified in discourse.

Theorists who subscribe to this approach stress that language learning is facilitated by using the language to communicate purposefully and meaningfully with others. Teaching the language involves using not only the linguistic processes of students but also their social and cognitive processes (*Richness in Writing*, 1989). This view emphasizes that teachers need to provide students with a variety of contexts and task structures for learning language. Teachers need to foster the students' interactions with their peers and other adults; encourage students to talk about their own experiences, which they connect with stories they have read or written; let students choose their own writing topics and literary forms in which they write; have students read and react to each other's writing; and integrate language development with other subject areas.

This view of language is reflected in the guidelines for foreign language education contained in California's *Foreign Language Framework* (1989, p. 2):

> A program that is communication-based is one in which the target language is used to exchange meaningful information in the classroom. Such a program helps students develop proficiency in another language by hearing and speaking the language and using the language to read and write about ideas that matter to them.

To achieve these goals, students are involved actively in well-planned, well-run programs implemented over the long term. Students need to have access to learning Korean at the elementary and secondary levels. Learning languages takes time and is best facilitated when instruction is uninterrupted (Collier, 1989). During communicative activities students are sharing information, negotiating meaning (sharing interpretations), and interacting. This active learning occurs while students are speaking, reading, and writing the language to accomplish meaningful tasks.

The California school that wishes to provide Korean language development to Korean-speaking students can turn to several possible resources. Usually, one or more adults in each Korean student's home is able to read and write Korean. Family members could be asked to work with the student at home to reinforce concepts learned in school. Some parents or grandparents might be willing to work with students in the school setting itself. In large urban areas a community language school may be providing Korean instruction on Saturdays or Sundays. Materials for reading and teaching Korean are easily available at specialty bookstores in communities with large Korean-speaking populations such as San Francisco and Los Angeles. Agencies of the Korean government provide useful materials in Korean and English. Examples are the Korean consulates, the Korean Cultural Center, and the Korea National Tourism Corporation. These government agencies are located in Los Angeles and in many other major urban areas of the United States. In addition, California has many resource centers that furnish information about Korea and Korean Americans (see Appendix B for a list of resources). Finally, because of the long history of immigration from Korea to California, almost every urban community has bilingual and bicultural people who are able to assist with the school's language activities.

Factors in Language Development

This section presents a discussion of factors involved in using language effectively: visual and sensorimotor abilities, oral language proficiency, conceptual knowledge, social skills, and motivation. Educators need to know how these factors interact in the complex process of learning and using language and how the students' development of individual abilities can be *integrated* in a unified, goal-oriented, and meaningful whole. For example, rather than developing listening or sensorimotor abilities independently and in isolation, instructors using this approach blend the many aspects of language learning into natural social contexts wherein students can enhance their insights into language and their own world. Effective instruction helps students to relate their prior experiences to the content of the lesson, connect their experiences and interpretations with those in the text, and create their own unique expressions that illustrate their new understanding. Such instruction should use all of the students' senses to maximize comprehension; provide meaningful redundancy and repetition through retellings and rereadings, and elicit students' responses in student-student and student-teacher interaction (*English–Language Arts Framework*, 1987).

The background of both the student and the school staff must be considered before Korean language development activities are introduced in the classroom. The actual teaching of Korean reading and writing will then be more successful. The timing of the introduction of English instruction and the relation between the two strands of language development will require thoughtful planning. But if the goal of *additive bilingualism* is maintained while instruction in both Korean and English is continuing, the rewards for the school and for the students will be both immediate and long term.

Six factors are associated with reading and writing in Korean or in any other language. The first two are the visual skills and sensorimotor coordination that children use when they begin to read. The children learn these nonlanguage-specific skills as they use language for naming basic shapes, comparing items that are the same or different, and sequencing events and materials. The next two factors are a command of spoken Korean and a knowledge of concepts by which the student can begin to understand and analyze meanings in the written language. Social skills and motivation to learn to read and write are the fifth and sixth factors involved in beginning to read and write. These factors are discussed in the remainder of this section. Some classroom activities are suggested.

Visual Skills

Visual skills include being able to recognize basic shapes, sizes, and colors; telling whether patterns are the same or different; naming the items that are missing in a picture; and choosing the picture that is different from the others. Some children are rehearsed in these abilities by parents before entering school; however, instruction should continue toward finer visual distinctions at the preschool, kindergarten, and primary levels. Korean students, especially those who have learned to read *han-gul*, have highly developed abilities in visual discrimination.

Sensorimotor Coordination

The important motor control and eye-hand coordination abilities for writing are called sensorimotor skills. A sequence of activities usually leads from the gross-motor level to the fine-motor level of physical movement and from the three-dimensional space around the body to the two-dimensional area of the page. First, isolated motions are mastered, such as jumping, throwing, catching, and clapping. Second, sustained sequences of actions related to a whole task are acquired; for example, acting out all the body motions that accompany a song or cutting and pasting pieces of paper to make a picture. Finally, the hands and fingers practice the fine skills of handling crayons, paper, and a pencil. Pencil-and-paper practice may include drawing lines through a maze and drawing basic shapes such as circles and triangles.

The visual and sensorimotor abilities that are involved in reading in Korean may be developed through the same approaches used with children who are beginning to read in English. Examples include learning the names of the shapes and the colors and the concepts of *same* and *different*. Prereading activities that focus on matching, differentiating, connecting dots, tracing, or coloring should be reviewed, with attention being given to culturally specific concepts before recently immigrated Korean children are asked to complete the exercises. However, large-motor and rhythmic activities can be introduced at any time. For example, the game rock-scissors-paper, known in Korean as *kai-bai-bok*, can be taught to all students as an exercise in rhythm, quick observation, and logical mental calculation. Exercises in music and dance can include Korean and English songs.

Students who have learned to read Korean before entering a California classroom will not need to repeat the stages of prereading skill development in the Korean reading strand. The sensorimotor skills developed in Korean can be transferred to learning English. The transfer of other prereading skills as well as of decoding and comprehension abilities can also be expected, provided that students receive continued, effective instruction in Korean and English language development.

Command of Spoken Korean

When students begin to read and write, they need to be familiar with most of the sounds, syntax, and common vocabulary of spoken Korean. Experience with many kinds of oral language styles should increase the oral language preparedness of students who use Korean only with their parents. Films or videos and stories read aloud enable teachers and classroom guests to model for young children the different levels of polite and formal speech used inside and outside the home. By interacting with literature and songs in Korean, the students become aware of the various styles and forms of this language. These activities can be extended to writing experiences in which students try using various styles of language.

In Korea students will have had six years of oral language development before entering first grade, where formal reading instruction begins. In California, however, the Korean-speaking child may not have the intense Korean language experiences that would be common in Korea. For example, in California the number of relatives and friends that speak to the child, the opportunities to listen to adults speaking among themselves, the hours of contact with Korean-speaking playmates, and exposure to Korean on radio and television may be limited, depending on the circumstances in the home and community. If this is the case, opportunities to speak Korean with adults and other children at school will be an especially valuable part of the language program. These oral language development experiences form the foundation for learning to read and write.

Children will benefit from activities in which they are encouraged to talk about their experiences and react to the experiences of others. Their language skills will grow when they are given the opportunity to teach and help fellow students. They will become more motivated to talk when they feel supported in their efforts to describe their feelings, their wants, and their needs. These experiences give students self-confidence and a sense of control over their own learning and development. These learning opportunities also help them develop listening and comprehension strategies, important elements of the reading process. The transition to reading can be facilitated through approaches that connect oral expression to text. (For more information on meaning-based language arts approaches, see Goodman, 1986.)

These learning activities will help expand the students' opportunities to read, write, and speak Korean. In addition to using Korean in familiar contexts, such as with the family, students need to develop their ability to use Korean in other situations, with increasingly challenging and formal levels of Korean. These experiences will encourage students in their efforts to learn Korean, validating its importance beyond the family setting.

Knowledge of Concepts

Knowledge of concepts includes being able to organize thoughts in chronological or thematic order, analyze and synthesize, anticipate consequences, explain similarities and differences, classify things, give simple definitions, and identify difficult words or phenomena. Development of these abilities involves building awareness of surroundings, understanding feelings, exploring people's roles and relations, and having many life experiences. As students develop these analytical skills through play, word games, and informal discussions, they prepare themselves for the conceptual demands of reading and writing. Vocabulary is developed as students experience and derive meaning from a broad range of ideas, concepts, and topics. For

Korean students effective school programs fill the gaps between the immediate American world of the students and the Korean cultural world that is reflected in reading materials that come from Korea.

Students need to be introduced to a new realm of "academic" oral language that is necessary both for becoming a fluent reader of Korean and for acquiring a fully developed adult command of oral Korean. Students need to learn to follow abstract explanations and be able to express the same. Using language effectively requires knowledge of formal, honorific forms and of informal, intimate forms of Korean. (For more on honorific forms in Korean, see Chapter III). Language development activities in school need to provide students with both formal and informal experiences in language throughout the school years. These experiences can occur naturally as students interact with a variety of stories, drama, oral histories, and poetry. As students read, write, and talk about ideas, they increase their ability to use language to improve their understanding of themselves and the world.

Social Skills

According to *Richness in Writing*, 1989, language learning is a social activity that involves knowing the appropriate times to speak and listen, the rules for addressing people of different ages and social status, and the ways of forming relationships and resolving conflicts. Because meaningful interaction is key to the learning of language, students need interactive experiences in the classroom that reinforce and develop their language in a social context. They not only need chances to participate in whole-class activities but also should have opportunities to work closely with fellow students in cooperative groups (Kagan, 1986; McGroarty, In press). These experiences will allow them to develop naturally the abilities to use language for a variety of purposes with people from various backgrounds.

Meaning is constructed as students interact with others, discussing ideas, negotiating solutions to problems, and offering points of view. Negotiating meaning results in communication that flows back and forth between speakers, thereby creating *both* input and output, essential ingredients in the language acquisition process (Genesee, 1987; Swain, 1985; Wells, 1985; Krashen, 1981). Research has confirmed that second language learners naturally adjust their speech as a way to help others understand (Long and Porter, 1985). As students work together to accomplish meaningful tasks, they naturally clarify others' comments, restate their own points, check others' comprehension, and repeat key points. Experience in these social situations sharpens students' abilities to succeed in real-life settings that require students to participate, collaborate, and compromise with others. When teachers create learning opportunities that respond to these social dynamics, they contribute to the students' language and social development.

Motivation to Learn to Read and Write

Educators capitalize on students' fascination with language by creating environments that are rich in interactive opportunities, tapping the students' prior experiences, and providing encouragement for continuous bilingual development. Effective teachers and principals communicate the goals of the school's language program to the students' parents. They reinforce the value of bilingualism and suggest ways that parents can participate in the process. They coordinate the school's efforts with those of the Korean community's language schools so that the school, home, and community programs support each other in encouraging Korean language development. If other students show an interest in and actually learn the Korean language, Korean language development activities become more prestigious for native Korean speakers. Second-language and native-language learning opportunities for all students (in English, Japanese, Korean, Spanish, and so on) will provide an atmosphere in which both activities are normal, not different.

Role of Literature

Using authentic stories, poetry, drama, and folktales in the Korean language is a key element in an effective language program. A literature-based program provides the students with stimulating content and engages them with important ideas and values for understanding themselves and the world around them. Literature provides a key context in which listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills can be developed in an integrated and meaning-centered fashion.

Korean literature represents a valuable resource for teaching children Korean language and related cultural concepts. Ways to stimulate students' language development are reading Korean stories to students, inviting Korean parent volunteers to tell students oral histories of their experiences in the United States and Korea, having students retell and discuss stories, letting students write their own stories and read other students' writing, and having students perform Korean dramas. Such language development activities validate the experiences of Korean students as well as expand their own and other students' knowledge of Korean language and culture. In addition to presenting indigenous Korean literature, educators can use Korean translations of classic world literature. These books are readily available from Korean bookstores found in most Korean communities (see Appendix B for this information). Suggested titles of Korean literature can also be found in the following documents published by the California Department of Education: *Recommended Literature, Grades Nine Through Twelve*, 1989; *Recommended Readings in Literature, Kindergarten Through Grade Eight, Annotated Edition*, 1988; and *Recommended Readings in Literature, Kindergarten Through Grade Eight* (Addendum), 1990.

Students will be motivated by the satisfaction of singing songs and reading stories, textbooks, and magazines in Korean; by new possibilities of communicating through letters and computer linkage with friends or family in Korea or Korean communities in other cities; or by the rewards of contributing to group projects by way of information researched in Korean. For example, Korean reading lessons can be coordinated with social studies lessons while students work in multilanguage teams on a California history project. Or students can interview their parents or grandparents in Korean to learn about their experiences as immigrants and can then write about these interviews and report the results to fellow classmates. By delving into their cultural history and explaining it to other students, Korean students can develop pride in themselves as Koreans, learn more about their heritage, and improve their relationship with their parents.

Half-Moon (*pan-dal*)

In a small, white boat
In the blue sky
Are a cinnamon tree and a rabbit.
Without sail and without oar,
Yet gliding,
Gliding smoothly to a western shore.

— from a children's song by Yoon Kuk-young

Transfer of Literacy

The transfer of reading abilities from Korean to English can be described in both general and specific terms for prereading, decoding, and comprehension skills (Thonis, 1981). At the most general level, students who have experienced in Korean the joy of connecting their own experiences with those in a story are likely to transfer this enthusiasm for reading to English. At a more specific level, when students become sensitive to the visual details of *han-gul*, the Korean alphabet, this discriminatory power is readily available for transfer to English.

Transferability of *Han-gul*

Because *han-gul* is a non-Roman alphabet, educators often mistakenly believe that a limited potential exists for transferability from Korean to English. In this case, however, transferability is based not on the similarity of alphabetic elements but on the students' general understanding that the visual symbols of *han-gul* represent the sounds and experiences with which students are familiar. For example, students who have learned to read and write in Korean can apply their eye-hand coordination to the physical task of reading and writing so that prereading skills do not have to be learned again. Furthermore, students who have learned to read and write in Korean have a great stock of analytical vocabulary and cognitive skills that they can apply to reading English. They will understand that written language is a code and that particular rules exist for decoding (reading) and encoding (writing) to relate the spoken to the written language. Chu (1990, p. 15) summarizes his own research on the question of transferability:

> Even when the two languages do not use the same writing system (English and Korean), researchers have found that general strategies, habits and attitudes, knowledge of text structure, rhetorical devices, sensorimotor skills, visual-perceptual training, cognitive functions, and many reading readiness skills transfer to second language reading.

Conventions of the Written Page

Students who are literate in Korean also understand that the written page is structured by conventions of punctuation and layout and that knowledge of these conventions helps in interpreting the written material. Students may be quick to analyze the nature of a document from physical clues (this is a letter, this is a poem, here is the author's name, here is the table of contents, and so on) even before they can fully comprehend the meaning of the sentences in English.

Reading for Meaning

Finally, students literate in Korean will know how to read for meaning—to relate the information in the reading passage to their own experiences. Their success in transferring this ability to English reading will depend in part on their knowledge of specific English vocabulary and syntax. When Korean-literate students encounter a difficult part in an English reading passage, they can transfer many research and problem-solving skills from their Korean language background. Or they can transfer these skills with limited instruction; for example, identifying the unknown words, seeking clues elsewhere in the context or in the content of the passage, consulting a dictionary or other reference material, or describing a problem to the teacher. Higher level reading and writing abilities in Korean are similar to those introduced gradually to native speakers of any language; for example, aesthetic appreciation of the form and function of literature. These skills will be transferred to the study of English at the upper grade levels.

Some of the best evidence that knowledge of content is transferred from one language to another is provided by Collier and Thomas (1989). They conducted two studies of 2,014 immigrant students aged four to sixteen, 20 percent of whom were Koreans, who received schooling exclusively in English after they had arrived in the United States. The studies were conducted in a large, affluent suburban school district on the East Coast. The sample for the studies was limited to immigrant students whose assessment by school officials indicated that these students were at or above grade level in native-language schooling but in need of beginning-level ESL classes. The results of the studies showed that students who were eight to eleven years of age when they immigrated were the fastest achievers, reaching the 50th percentile on all five standardized tests (reading, language arts, mathematics, science, and social studies) after five to seven years' residence in the United States. These findings confirm Cummins' (1981) Canadian research in which it was determined that it took five to seven years for immigrants to reach grade-level norms in academic English.

In contrast, four-year-old to seven-year-old immigrant students with little or no schooling in their first language had not reached the 50th percentile within the first six years of their residency in the United States. On the basis of this rate of progress, these students would need seven to ten years to reach the 50th percentile. According to Collier and Thomas (p. 28):

> It appears that a minimum of two years of native language schooling in the students' home country is a significant variable influencing academic achievement in second language. These four- to seven-year-old arrivals had received very little or no formal schooling in the first language before coming to the U.S. and did not have the opportunity to receive schooling in their native language after arrival.

These findings on young children with little or no education in their native language are evidence for the interdependent relationship between learning in the first language and second language and for the importance of continuing academic development in the first language, including native language literacy, as a way to facilitate the acquisition of the second language.

In summary, although the surface features of Korean and English are different, the concepts and the purposes of reading and writing are similar. The student who is literate in one language has many language abilities that can be applied readily to the challenge of learning to read and write in the other language. Successful programs for Korean students emphasize continuing cognitive academic development in both Korean and English. These programs develop the students' Korean language proficiency as a foundation for eventual success in English, as a valuable linguistic and cognitive asset, and as a validation of the students' cultural background.

Planning a Korean Language Program

In addition to determining the needs of students, those involved in the task of planning a language program need to be concerned with developing the proper conditions in the school. To implement an effective Korean language program, school staff members need to establish the goals of such instruction and develop a planning process that will allow the program to emerge in a developmental fashion.

Different program models are possible, depending on the concentration of students. For example, Appendix A contains figures for

1990 showing 46 California districts in 1990 that enrolled at least 50 Korean-speaking limited-English-proficient (LEP) students. In addition, 91 California districts enrolled between ten and 50 students, and 204 districts had ten or fewer students. Districts with large concentrations of Korean students and Korean-speaking bilingual teachers may provide developmental bilingual programs in which Korean LEP students and non-Korean speakers acquire increasingly sophisticated levels of Korean during several years of instruction. On the other hand, districts with very small numbers might provide supplemental instruction in Korean through the use of community volunteers or cross-aged tutors. Regardless of the district's size, however, careful planning and staff development are essential for building a high quality program.

At the point of initiating or upgrading a Korean language program, the school's staff might look to the other kinds of native language instruction provided in the community, such as weekend language schools. (For more on weekend language schools, see chapters I and II.) Koreans in the community who are already teaching Korean could assist school personnel in getting a supplemental language program started. More important, they could help identify certificated teachers or individuals who could eventually become certified. They could also assist in obtaining materials for teaching Korean language and culture.

Planning, implementing, and improving the program are collaborative efforts involving district and school-level administrators, teachers, parents, and other community members. The checklists in the section that follows may be helpful to this group during the planning process.

Setting the Goals

When the goals are being set, the following should be determined:

1. What are the goals of the Korean language program? For example, will the program concentrate on Korean aural/oral language development, reading comprehension, writing, or all of these areas?
2. How will the instruction be coordinated with English–language arts?
3. How will parents be involved in setting the goals and cooperating with staff to accomplish them?

4. What aspects of Korean and Korean-American culture can be incorporated in the program?
5. How will support for the goals be provided by school-level and district-level administrations?

Identifying the Students

When students are being identified for the program, the following must be known:

1. How many students will benefit from Korean language instruction?
2. Will some students want instruction in Korean as a second language?
3. Are the students who speak Korean immigrants from Korea? How long have they lived here?
4. Will students with non-Korean backgrounds be invited to participate? How will they participate in the program?
5. How many of the Korean-speaking students who will participate in the program have been raised in the United States? What is the degree of their knowledge of Korea and the Korean language?
6. Is there any other school in the community that is providing academic instruction in Korean, in Korean as a second language, or in Korean culture and arts?
7. How will the public school program cooperate with the community's language schools?

Developing Instructional Resources

When instructional resources are being developed, the following must be determined:

1. Do program staff members have the competencies needed to help students achieve instructional goals? That is, can they teach students to read, write, and speak Korean?
2. If additional staff members are needed, how will they be recruited?
3. Are community volunteers available to assist staff members?
4. How will staff members be provided continual professional development?
5. How will school staff members cooperate with the parents of the program's participants? How will staff members train

parents and involve them in the language program and in other school activities?

6. What materials will have to be obtained to implement and improve instruction in the Korean language? How will authentic Korean language materials be obtained and used?
7. How will resources for space and time be allocated to Korean language activities?
8. How will Korean language instruction be scheduled during the school day?
9. How will supplemental funding (for example, School Improvement, ESEA, Title VII) be identified and used?

Achieving Goals and Policies

When the means for achieving goals and policies are being determined, the following must be considered:

1. To what extent will language education in the school rely on curriculum materials developed in Korea?
2. How will Korean language materials be adapted to the Korean-American context in California?
3. How will instruction in Korean reading be coordinated with English reading?
4. How will the Korean reading program relate to the other bilingual education programs in the school?
5. By what means will teachers and parents consult about the progress of students and discuss improvements in the curriculum?

With continual attention to such questions as these, even a school with limited resources can develop an effective and well-integrated reading program for Korean and non-Korean students.

Designing Instructional Programs

The following section summarizes a variety of program designs for teaching students English and Korean and identifies the strengths and weaknesses of each. On the basis of an understanding of these program designs and the needs of their particular student populations, educators will be able to make better decisions about which programs are likely to have the best results for their students. For more information on implementing effective dual language programs, see the California Department of Education's *Bilingual Education Handbook* (1990).

Introduction of English Instruction

Most limited-English-proficient (LEP) students benefit from English language instruction as soon as they enter school. They are eager to learn English as a means of expressing themselves, interacting with others, and succeeding in school. Effective English language teaching provides these students with opportunities to use English as a medium for learning something important; as a means for expressing something meaningful; and as a vehicle for sharing information, negotiating meaning, and interacting with others. In these kinds of activities, language is not learned for its own sake; it is a medium for learning things that are important. Learning language and learning about the world become integrated.

In school situations LEP students might be instructed in English in four basic ways: (1) submersion classes; (2) grammar-based English as a second language (ESL); (3) communicative-based ESL; and (4) sheltered-English classes. (See the Glossary for the definitions of these terms.) In submersion classes teachers instruct as if all of the students in the class were native speakers of English. Grammar-based ESL classes focus on phonology and syntax and emphasize the learning of language rules through inductive (grammar-translation) or deductive (audiolingual or cognitive code) methods. Communicative-based ESL, by contrast, emphasizes language use and language functions. This type of instruction focuses on basic communicative competence, not on the learning of rules of grammar. Sheltered-English approaches deliver subject matter in the second language through strategies especially effective for LEP students (for a discussion of sheltered approaches, see Brinton, Snow, and Wesche, 1989; Richard-Amato, 1988; *ESL Through Content-Area Instruction*, 1987; and Mohan, 1986).

Findings from research studies suggest that communicative-based ESL and sheltered-English instruction are the most effective approaches for promoting the students' ability to speak, read, and write English (*Richness in Writing*, 1989; Krashen, 1981). These approaches create rich linguistic and academic environments in which students are able to use language and academic concepts in meaningful contexts. The approaches effectively integrate language and content learning so that students can acquire communicative competence and academic concepts.

Grammar-based ESL and submersion classes are less effective ways to introduce English instruction. Grammar-based ESL leads mostly to the students' development of a knowledge of the rules of English (Krashen, 1981). Although grammatical approaches may help students learn *about* English, they do not foster the development of communicative competence. Overemphasis on grammatical correctness also inhibits many students' active participation, thereby reducing their opportunities for acquiring language. To acquire full command of English, students need access to multiple social contexts in which they are actively involved in hearing and using the language to accomplish meaningful tasks. Although grammar-based instruction may help students to understand the structure and regularity of English, this instruction should be complemented with communicative-based ESL and sheltered English so that students may be helped to develop a full range of abilities to use English in a variety of contexts.

Submersion classes are ineffective because instruction is not adapted to the linguistic, cognitive, and social needs of LEP students. Students are not provided opportunities for either *comprehensible input* (Krashen, 1981) or *comprehensible output* (Swain, 1985). Research studies suggest that students acquire language when they receive input that they understand *and* have an opportunity to express themselves with what language they know.

Submersion environments, where instruction is not differentiated appropriately for LEP students, do not provide students with the opportunities they need to interact in settings where both input and output are comprehensible. Because instruction is geared to native speakers, LEP students are unable to comprehend the messages of others and to express what they know (Ramirez, Yuen, and Ramey, 1991). Furthermore, children who have not experienced normal cognitive or academic development are unable to assimilate the complex and decontextualized language that characterizes grammar-based ESL and submersion classes.

In summary, a substantial amount of research evidence suggests that submersion environments and grammar-based ESL are not effective for LEP students, especially in the early stages of acquisition. Communicative-based approaches and sheltered-English classes are effective in promoting not only the students' ability to speak, read, and write in English but also the students' cognitive and social development, key areas in ensuring overall success in school.

Reading in Two Languages

There are basically four choices in organizing a reading program in bilingual contexts: (1) traditional bilingual education programs in which literacy instruction is begun in Korean and followed by English; (2) bilingual education programs in which students learn to read in Korean and English simultaneously; (3) immersion programs in which students learn to read in English followed by Korean; and (4) ESL-only programs in which literacy instruction is provided only in English. In this section each of these approaches will be described and evaluated as to possible outcomes for most Korean-speaking students.

Learning to Read Korean Followed by English

A traditional bilingual education program provides initial reading instruction in the students' primary language followed by reading in English. The program is effective when the school has competent staff, high quality primary language materials, and parental support (Cummins, 1989, 1981; Ovando and Collier, 1985). In the most successful programs, students are given full primary language literacy instruction in kindergarten and grades one through three. At approximately the third-grade level, if a student has made normal reading progress, formal reading in English is introduced.

Reading instruction in the students' first language is continued until at least the sixth-grade level (Cummins, 1989, 1981). Sustained, uninterrupted instruction in English and/or the native language is critical because the effects of reading instruction are cumulative, showing the best results after five to seven years (Collier, 1989; Cummins, 1989, 1981). The results of this effort are positive, with many studies indicating that proficient bilingual and biliterate students have definite advantages over other language-minority students and even over monolingual majority students (Cummins, 1989, 1981; Genesee, 1987; Dolson, 1985).

Learning to Read in Korean and English Simultaneously

In some bilingual programs reading instruction in Korean and English is presented to students simultaneously. This option may be particularly attractive for Korean-English bilingual programs in which students are learning two radically different alphabets and writing systems. Cognitive confusion that sometimes occurs between two similar alphabetic systems would not present a problem in a Korean-English program. For example, when students are learning two languages of the same family with a Roman alphabet, like Spanish and English, they often encounter *false cognates* and assume that the meanings for the English *assist* (to help) and the Spanish *asistir* (to attend) are the same. In a Korean-English program, however, because the students are learning to associate two totally different alphabetic systems and language families, few possibilities for false cognates exist.

The key to an effective simultaneous literacy program is coordination of the reading activities in the two languages. In light of the notion of the common underlying proficiency (Cummins, 1989, 1981), teaching the same or equivalent skills in both languages is not necessary. A much more efficient approach is to choose activities that are appropriate to the student's reading level and emphasize different concepts or objectives in each language according to the content and the student's needs.

If different teachers are responsible for the two languages, they must plan and coordinate their work carefully. If one teacher handles both languages, instruction in the two languages should be separated according to time, materials, and environment. Simultaneous literacy instruction does not mean mixing languages in the same activity. Rather, the instruction should complement and enhance the student's literacy development through the use of two languages in separate, efficient, and challenging sets of activities. One way to achieve this separation would be to select certain subjects to be taught only in Korean, such as social studies and science, with other subjects being taught in English. Language development activities in Korean and English could then deal with the distinct features of each language to facilitate the students' bilingualism and biliteracy.

Korean translations of the works of famous American and world authors could be used to strengthen the students' knowledge of

Korean language. These works are available from Korean bookstores in many Korean communities. (See Appendix B for this information.) By reading this literature in Korean, students would have an excellent foundation for studying similar works and contributing to discussions in classes taught in English. Teachers could use the translated works with Korean students to preview stories that are discussed in English. Or the translations could be used to review stories after they have been taught in English.

Learning to Read English Followed by Korean

Programs may be designed so that learning to read initially in English is followed by learning to read in the native language. Such programs have been referred to as immersion education, a form of bilingual education in which students who speak the language of the majority of the population are instructed partly through a second language and partly through their first language (Genesee, 1987). Generally, initial instruction, including literacy training, is provided in the second language and is followed by instruction in the native language. This program model could be adapted for Korean students in the United States as a way to provide school-based instruction in the Korean language. For example, after initial instruction in English literacy in the early elementary grades, Korean students could be provided instruction in Korean language arts.

For more than a decade, immersion programs in French for native English-speaking students have been operating in Canada. Several experimental immersion programs also have been conducted in the United States. In such programs all initial instruction, including literacy training, is given through the students' second language. In the second or third grade, English-language arts are added to the curriculum. Numerous studies have shown that most students in French immersion programs achieve high levels of literacy in both languages (Genesee, 1987; *Studies on Immersion Education*, 1984; Cummins, 1981). Even though students were provided with most of their instruction in French, the students quickly caught up to their monolingually schooled peers once English–language arts was added to the curriculum. In fact, the students in the immersion program did as well in English reading as the students in English-only programs (Genesee, 1987). In addition, of course, the students benefited from French proficiency.

Immersion programs are designed so that native English-speaking students acquire a second language while experiencing normal development in academic and English skills. Studies of students' performances in these programs reveal that the students generally become proficient in both languages. For Korean students to succeed in such programs, educators must be committed to promoting the limited-English-proficient students' academic learning as well as comparable proficiency in both English and Korean. Once instruction in Korean has been added to the curriculum, this instruction should continue for several years to ensure that students eventually attain bilingual proficiency.

Learning in Two-way Programs

Limited-English-proficient, fluent-English-proficient, and native-English-speaking students can profit from the combined advantages of bilingual and immersion education through a two-way bilingual program model. *Two-way bilingual education* refers to a program model in which speakers of both languages (for example, Korean and English) are placed in a bilingual classroom to learn each other's language ("Bilingual Immersion," 1990; Crawford, 1989; Ovando and Collier, 1985). Also referred to as *bilingual immersion education*, this model creates positive interdependence among students as they help each other learn academic subjects and the two languages. In a Korean two-way program, native Korean speakers are grouped with native-English speakers. During the first year or two of the program, Korean is used as the principal language for teaching academic subjects. Gradually, the amount of time for English is increased until each language is used about 50 percent of the time, usually after about four years. The native-English-speaking students serve as English models for the native-Korean-speaking students; the native-Korean speakers are Korean models for the English speakers. By offering linguistic and academic benefits to both groups of children and their parents, the two-way model can potentially generate mutual support among students, staff, and parents.

Learning in English-only Programs

For a variety of reasons—philosophical position, desires of some students and parents, or a lack of educational resources—some school districts continue to provide Korean students with English-only submersion-type reading instruction. Most of these programs provide at least oral ESL instruction; nevertheless, teachers often lack the curriculum materials and training necessary for developing initial literacy instruction in English for limited-English-proficient (LEP) students. Unfortunately, many English-only programs for LEP students resemble remedial activities used with native speakers of English. The limitations of English-only programs are well documented (Crawford, 1989; Cummins, 1989, 1981; Krashen, 1981). Remedial instruction is usually based on the assumption that students failed to learn something at home or at school and need special instruction to compensate for this inadequacy. Students who need this instruction are most often grouped together apart from nonremedial students. Students quickly attach a stigma to these activities, viewing them as only for those who lack the ability to succeed in regular classes.

Even when LEP students are not grouped separately for remedial activities, English-only instruction creates a variety of problems. In the midst of native-English speakers, LEP students have difficulty receiving comprehensible instruction from teachers faced with meeting the needs of all students in the class. Teachers cannot provide the kind of intensive, specialized instruction that students need. Furthermore, English-only instruction makes students feel that their native language is not important enough to be a language of instruction. Under the best approaches to the English-only option, mainstream instruction in English is delayed until LEP students have acquired basic communicative competency in English through specialized ESL instruction. Once oral language and initial literacy skills in English have been established, students are better able to participate in and benefit from mainstream instruction. Because instruction in Korean is not provided, most students will probably experience a subtractive form of bilingualism. In other words, students will lose their Korean faster than they can acquire English (Cummins, 1981). In many cases this loss leads to limited language ability in both languages and, in turn, academic difficulties that students continue to suffer throughout their school experience. This phenomenon is illustrated by many Korean students' low scores in English–language arts compared with their performance in other subjects such as mathematics (Kwon, 1990).[1]

---

[1] Howard Kwon is the former Coordinator, Special Programs and Services, ABC Unified School District, Cerritos, California.

Supplementing the English-only Program

English-only instruction is not a recommended option. However, because of a variety of circumstances, school district personnel may implement an instructional program conducted entirely in English. Under such conditions, the English-only program can be buttressed by:

1. Providing students with rich opportunities to acquire English in settings especially designed to meet the linguistic, cognitive, and social needs of LEP students
2. Providing cognitive and academic language development by offering sheltered-English strategies and by linking English language development with other subject areas
3. Pairing LEP students with students proficient in English and creating other collaborative, peer-support structures designed to assist the students with academic tasks
4. Organizing instructional activities so that they build on the students' previous learning experiences (Students should not be introduced to new concepts until they have received appropriate linguistic and academic training sufficient enough to assimilate increasingly complex skills.)
5. Analyzing English reading materials for potential difficulties that students may have with vocabulary, syntax, and cultural content (The students should be provided with supplemental instruction to overcome these difficulties. Supplemental instruction may be provided as a preview or a review activity associated with mainstream instruction.)
6. Helping students develop study skills to assist them with analyzing unfamiliar materials, highlighting key concepts, researching unknown information, and using the library and other resources for self-help
7. Providing teachers with professional development in Korean language, culture, immigration history, and other information that will help them understand the background of Korean students and otherwise validate the students' language and culture
8. Providing interested parents with materials and assistance to support their children's language and academic development in Korean at home (Teachers should encourage these parents to focus on tasks to prepare their children for the linguistic, cognitive, and social requirements of school.)

A comprehensive description of how English language arts and other areas of the curriculum can be made accessible to LEP students can be found in the *Bilingual Education Handbook*, 1990. See also Mohan, 1986; Ovando and Collier, 1985; *ESL Through Content-Area Instruction*, 1987; and Brinton, Snow, and Wesche, 1989.

Summarizing the Program Designs

Historically, most parents and educators have thought that ability to communicate well in English is the only critical need for LEP students. However, for cultural, educational, and economic reasons, becoming bilingual could enhance the life of any student, regardless of ethnic or language background. Yet, for most students in California, bilingualism remains an elusive goal. Many educators, as well as the students' own parents, harbor misconceptions about bilingualism or lack knowledge about how students can become proficient in the Korean language without jeopardizing their academic success.

In recent years the knowledge gained through research studies of bilingual education programs has grown significantly. Similarly, there is increased awareness that knowledge of two or more languages will be essential to keep the United States economically competitive. Teachers need the support of policymakers and district administrators to transform this awareness into practice. Given adequate administrative backing, educators can build a partnership with students' parents to create home-based, community-based, and school-based support systems that will enable children to reach their full potential in both English and Korean. The purpose of this handbook is to provide the information and encouragement necessary to help foster this partnership.

Selected References

Bilingual Education Handbook. Sacramento: Bilingual Education Office, California Department of Education, 1990.*

"Bilingual Immersion Education: A Program for the Year 2000 and Beyond." Sacramento: Bilingual Education Office, California Department of Education, January, 1990.

---

*See page 177 of this publication for information on ordering documents published by the California Department of Education.

Brinton, Donna M.; Marguerite Ann Snow; and Marjorie Bingham Wesche. *Content-Based Second Language*. New York: Newbury House Publishers, 1989.

Chu, Harold. "The Role of the Korean Language in the Bilingual Programs of the United States." Paper presented at the symposium, Role of Asian Primary Languages, Hacienda Heights, California, September 28, 1990.

Collier, Virginia P. "How Long? A Synthesis of Research on Academic Achievement in a Second Language," *TESOL Quarterly*, Vol. 23 (September, 1989), pp. 509–531.

Collier, Virginia P., and Wayne P. Thomas. "How Quickly Can Immigrants Become Proficient in School English?" *The Journal of Educational Issues of Language Minority Students*, Vol. 5 (Fall, 1989), pp. 26–38.

Crawford, James. *Bilingual Education: History, Politics, Theory, and Practice*. Trenton, N.J.: Crane Publishing Company, 1989.

Cummins, James. *Empowering Minority Students*. Sacramento: California Association for Bilingual Education, 1989.

Cummins, James. "The Role of Primary Language Development in Promoting Educational Success for Language Minority Students," in *Schooling and Language Minority Students: A Theoretical Framework*. Developed by the Bilingual Education Office, California State Department of Education. Los Angeles: Evaluation, Dissemination, and Assessment Center, California State University, Los Angeles, 1981, pp. 3–49.

Dolson, David P. "Bilingualism and Scholastic Performance: The Literature Revisited," *NABE Journal*, Vol. 10 (1985), 1–35.

English–Language Arts Framework. Sacramento: California State Department of Education, 1987.*

ESL Through Content-Area Instruction: Mathematics, Science, and Social Studies. Edited by JoAnn Crandall. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice Hall Regents, 1987.

Foreign Language Framework. Sacramento: California State Department of Education, 1989.*

Genesee, Fred. *Learning Through Two Languages: Studies of Immersion and Bilingual Education*. New York: Newbury House Publishers, 1987.

Goodman, Kenneth. *What's Whole in Whole Language?* Portsmouth, N.H.: Heinemann Educational Books, Inc., 1986.

Hakuta, Kenji. *Mirror of Language: The Debate on Bilingualism*. New York: Basic Books, 1986.

Kagan, Spencer. "Cooperative Learning and Sociocultural Factors in Schooling," in *Beyond Language: Social and Cultural Factors in School-*

---

*See page 177 of this publication for information on ordering documents published by the California Department of Education.

ing Language Minority Students. Developed by the Bilingual Education Office, California State Department of Education, Los Angeles: Evaluation, Dissemination, and Assessment Center, California State University, Los Angeles, 1986, pp. 231–98.

Krashen, Stephen D. "Bilingual Education and Second Language Acquisition Theory," in *Schooling and Language Minority Students: A Theoretical Framework*. Developed by the Bilingual Education Office, California State Department of Education. Los Angeles: Evaluation, Dissemination, and Assessment Center, California State University, Los Angeles, 1981, pp. 51–79.

Kwon, Howard. Interview with Daniel Holt. Cerritos, California, March 1, 1990.

Long, Michael H., and Patricia A Porter. "Group Work, Interlanguage Talk, and Second Language Acquisition," *TESOL Quarterly*, Vol. 19 (June, 1985), 207–228.

McGroarty, Mary. "Cooperative Learning and Second Language Acquisition." in *Cooperative Learning for Students from Diverse Language Backgrounds*. Edited by Daniel D. Holt. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice Hall Regents. In press.

McLaughlin, Barry. *Theories of Second-Language Learning*. London: Edward Arnold Publishers, 1987.

Mohan, Bernard A. *Language and Content*. Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, 1986.

Ovando, Carlos J., and Virginia P. Collier. *Bilingual and ESL Classrooms: Teaching in Multicultural Contexts*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1985.

Ramirez, J. David; Sandra D. Yuen; and Dena R. Ramey. *Final Report: Longitudinal Study of Structured English Immersion Strategy, Early-Exit, and Late-Exit Transitional Bilingual Education Programs for Language-Minority Children* (Executive Summary). San Mateo, Calif.: Aguirre International, February, 1991.

Recommended Literature, Grades Nine Through Twelve. Sacramento: California State Department of Education, 1989.*

Recommended Readings in Literature, Kindergarten Through Grade Eight, Annotated Edition. Sacramento: California State Department of Education, 1988.*

Recommended Readings in Literature, Kindergarten Through Grade Eight, Addendum. Sacramento: California State Department of Education, 1990.*

*See page 177 of this publication for information on ordering documents published by the California Department of Education.

Richard-Amato, Patricia A. *Making It Happen: Interaction in the Second Language Classroom.* New York: Longman, 1988.

Richards, Jack C., and Theodore S. Rodgers. *Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching: A Description and Analysis.* Cambridge, Mass.: Cambridge University Press, 1986.

Richness in Writing: Empowering ESL Students. Edited by Donna M. Johnson and Duane H. Roen. White Plains, N.Y.: Longman, Inc., 1989.

Schooling and Language Minority Students: A Theoretical Framework. Developed by the Office of Bilingual Bicultural Education, California State Department of Education. Los Angeles: Evaluation, Dissemination, and Assessment Center, California State University, Los Angeles, 1981.

Studies on Immersion Education: A Collection for United States Educators. Sacramento: Office of Bilingual Bicultural Education, California State Department of Education, 1984.*

Swain, Merrill. "Communicative Competence: Some Roles of Comprehensible Input and Comprehensible Output in Its Development," in *Input in Second Language Acquisition.* Edited by S. Gass and C. Madden. Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House, 1985, pp. 235–253.

Thonis, Eleanor W. "Reading Instruction for Language Minority Students," in *Schooling and Language Minority Students: A Theoretical Framework.* Developed by the Office of Bilingual Bicultural Education, California State Department of Education. Los Angeles: Evaluation, Dissemination, and Assessment Center, California State University, Los Angeles, 1981, pp. 147–181.

Wells, Gordon. *Language Development in the Preschool Years.* New York: Cambridge University Press, 1985.

---

*See page 177 of this publication for information on ordering documents published by the California Department of Education.

Glossary

Additive bilingualism. A process by which individuals develop proficiency in a second language subsequent to or simultaneously with the development of proficiency in the primary language.

Affix. Additional sound or group of sounds that, when added to the root of the word, changes the meaning of the word or makes a new word.

Affricate. A consonant that is a combination of stop and fricative, such as the *ch* in *choose.*

Agglutination. A feature of Korean and other languages in which compound words or whole phrases are built by adding affixes to roots of words that retain their form or meaning. Agglutinative languages are contrasted with inflectional languages, such as English, in which meaning is altered by spelling changes within words.

Alveolar. A speech sound articulated with the tip or blade of the tongue in contact with the upper gums; for example, *t* or *d.*

Aspirate. A speech sound made by a puff of air, represented phonetically by [h], that distinguishes, for example, *hall* from *all* and *high* from *I* or [t^{h}] from *team* and [t] from *steam.*

Assimilation. The phonetic process by which a sound is changed to conform to a neighboring sound; for example, the *p* in *cupboard.*

Chinese characters. Koreans sometimes use Chinese characters in addition to *han-gul* when writing their language. Korean can be written exclusively in *han-gul.*

Cognitive/academic language proficiency (CALP). The ability to use language for literacy and academic purposes. James Cummins first used this term, but he later refined the notion to that of "cognitively demanding decontextualized" language (1981). This proficiency involves a greater vocabulary, more complicated syntax, and a higher level of abstraction than do basic oral communication skills.

Communicative-based English as a second language. A second-language instructional approach in which the goals, teaching methods, and assessments of students' progress are all based on objectives defined in relation to students' abilities to communicate messages in English. In communicative-based ESL the focus is on language function and use, not on formal grammar.

Comprehensible input. A term used by linguist Stephen D. Krashen to describe language that contains structures and vocabulary that are

NOTE: For a detailed description of these and other linguistic terms, the reader should consult David Crystal, *The Cambridge Encyclopedia of Language*. New York: Cambridge University Press, 1987.

slightly beyond the acquirer's current level of language proficiency. According to Krashen, receiving comprehensible input is the most important factor in acquring language proficiency. Teachers can make input comprehensible by using background information that is familiar to the acquirer and by adjusting the linguistic complexity of the language.

Comprehensible output. A term used by linguist Merill Swain to describe the function of producing language (output), in addition to receiving understandable messages (input), as part of the process of acquiring language proficiency. Swain argues that successful learners create opportunities for meaningful exchanges and negotiations with other speakers, thereby facilitating the process of acquiring language.

Enrichment bilingual education program. An organized curriculum that includes instruction in the student's primary language and in English as a second language. Academic subjects are taught in English and the student's primary language. The major goal of an enrichment bilingual education program is that the participating students will develop proficient bilingualism.

False cognates. A cognate is a word that shares the same root with a word in another language. False cognates occur when language learners observe similarities in words from different languages and mistakenly assume that the words share the same root; for example, *assist* (to help) in English and *asistir* (to attend) in Spanish.

Fricative. A consonant produced by air forced through a narrowed passage; for example, *f*, *s*, and *v*.

Grammar-based English as a second language. An ESL approach in which the goals, teaching methods, and students' evaluations are all based on objectives related to the students' acquisition of grammar rules and ability to produce grammatically correct sentences in English. The focus is on language form, not on language function and use. Examples of grammar-based ESL approaches include grammar-translation, audiolingualism, and cognitive code.

Han-gul. The unique phonetic alphabet of the Korean people, developed exclusively for writing the Korean language. Unlike other alphabets that evolved gradually, *han-gul* was developed in a limited period of time during the reign of King Sejong (1418-1450). Until the invention of *han-gul*, Koreans relied on Chinese characters for writing their language. King Sejong envisioned *han-gul* as a means by which common people could express their thoughts in writing. The phonetic *han-gul* has enabled Korea to have one of the highest literacy rates in the world.

Han-ja. The Korean word for "Chinese characters." Before the invention of *han-gul*, Koreans relied exclusively on Chinese characters for writing their language. Although their language can be completely represented with *han-gul*, Koreans continue to insert Chinese characters in text in order to clarify meaning.

Han-mun. Another Korean word for "Chinese characters."

Immersion program. An organized second-language learning curriculum for students who speak the majority language (for example, English) as their native language. In addition to the regular goals of the school, the immersion program's additional goal is proficient bilingualism for participating students. The curriculum includes native language development, second language learning, and subject-area learning through the second language.

Infix. An affix inserted within a word.

Korean American. Used to describe Americans of Korean ancestry. The term is used to denote the community or traditions of Korean-American people as distinguished from those of either Korean or other ethnic American people.

Labial. A consonant formed by the active use of one or both lips; for example *p* and *b*.

Liquid. Articulated without friction and capable of being prolonged like a vowel; for example, *r* and *l*.

Metalinguistic awareness. Refers to one's understanding of the global aspects of language versus a knowledge of the specific features of language.

Morphology. The study of the structure of words.

Nasal. A sound in which the nasal passages are open during its pronunciation; for example, *m*, *n*, and *ng*.

Palatal. A sound in which the front of the tongue arches toward the hard palate; for example, the *sh* in *she*.

Phoneme. The smallest, significant structural unit in the sound system of any language.

Phonetics. The science describing and classifying speech sounds of a language or group of languages.

Phonology. The study of speech sounds to discover the principles that govern the way that sounds are organized into languages.

Prefix. An affix placed before the root of a word.

Proficient bilingualism. A level of bilingualism at which individuals attain native-like proficiency in two languages. Proficient bilingualism in Korean and English means mastery of understanding, speaking, reading, and writing skills in both languages.

Retroflex. The type of *r* made with the tongue tip raised and curled back; for example, *girl*.

Seon-saeng-nim. The Korean word for "teacher." This term is also used for addressing persons—usually men—in respected positions. It may be used alone or with the person's family name, such as "Kim, seon-saeng-nim."

Sheltered-English classes. Subject-matter class periods taught in English to LEP students. Instruction focuses on helping LEP students learn academic content and English as a second language. In this approach teachers use a variety of specialized methods to ensure the students' comprehension and acquisition of both subject matter and English.

Sino-Korean characters. Another term for "Chinese characters."

Stop. A consonant articulated with a puff of air after closure or stoppage; for example, the *p* of *apt.*

Submersion classes. Subject-matter class periods taught in English to mixed groups of native speakers of English and LEP students. Instructional activities are not designed or adapted to meet the needs of the LEP students.

Submersion program. A curriculum taught in English to mixed groups of native speakers of English and students still learning English as a second language. No special instructional activities are provided to LEP students, who are expected to "sink or swim." In such programs LEP students commonly experience a form of subtractive bilingualism, usually limited bilingualism.

Subtractive bilingualism. The development of language skills in the first language is interrupted or those skills are lost because of the disuse or suppression of the first language in the school program. In the case of Korean and English, a school program that neither encourages nor teaches the development of Korean speaking, reading, and writing skills, but that emphasizes only English, is likely to produce subtractive bilingualism.

Suffix. An affix added to the end of a word.

Transitional bilingual education program. An organized curriculum that provides instruction in and through the first language of LEP students for a limited time. For Korean-speaking LEP students, such a program would include (1) Korean language development; (2) English-as-a-second-language instruction; and (3) school subjects taught through both Korean and English. In an "early-exit" transitional bilingual program, students would be removed from Korean language activities as soon as they achieve basic communication skills in English. In a "late-exit" transitional program, LEP Korean speakers would continue to receive Korean language development and Korean assistance in subject areas until cognitive/academic language proficiency in English is achieved.

Velar. A speech sound formed with the back of the tongue touching or near the soft palate; for example, *g* as in *good.*

Bibliography

The publications listed in this section provide information on topics beyond the scope of the handbook. "Suggested Readings" covers "General Information," "History and Politics," "Culture and Society," "Business and Finance," and "Immigration History and Korean-American Life." "Korean Literature" lists selections for students in kindergarten through grade three, grades four through six, and grades seven through twelve. And "Korean Language Materials" lists publications for adults learning Korean as a second language.

Suggested Readings

The titles included in this section are not intended to be comprehensive. They represent only a sampling of the wide range of materials that can provide further insights into Korea, its people, and its culture.

General Information

This category lists sources containing overviews of modern Korea.

Gibbons, B. "The South Koreans," *National Geographic*, Vol. 174, No. 2 (August, 1988), 232–57.

An account of the changing economy, politics, and life-style of Korea. The article describes the highly competitive nature of Koreans and their development of South Korea into a strong economic force. This issue also contains a story about Kyongju, the ancient capital of the Shilla Kingdom.

A Handbook of Korea (Eighth edition). Seoul: Korean Overseas Information Service, 1990.

A comprehensive resource guide on modern Korea. Topics include language, history, religions, culture, politics, economics, and social developments. Inquiries about this 574-page publication should be addressed to the Korean Cultural Center, 5505 Wilshire Boulevard, Los Angeles, CA 90036.

Howe, Russel Warren. *The Koreans: Passion and Grace*. New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, 1988.

A profile of modern-day Korea and Koreans, from the glistening skyscrapers of downtown Seoul to Shamanistic rituals in the countryside. The author explores the symmetry and contradictions that characterize Korean culture.

Nilsen, Robert. *South Korea Handbook*. Chico, Calif.: Moon Publications, 1988.

A detailed travel guide to Korea that provides comprehensive information about the history, economy, language, culture, and politics of Korea. From his own experiences the author also provides suggestions for how to get around the country, including descriptions of all geographic regions as well as large and small towns.

History and Politics

Books listed in this section deal with Korean history, the Korean War, modern Korean politics, and North Korea.

Cumings, Bruce. *The Origins of the Korean War: Liberation and the Emergence of Separate Regimes, 1945–47*. Princeton, N.J.: Princeton University Press, 1981.

Scholarly study of the background of the Korean War. The author claims the conflict was inevitable following the decisions of 1945 that ultimately led to the establishment of separate regimes in the North and South.

Goulden, Joseph C. *Korea: The Untold Story of the War*. New York: Times Books, 1982.

Alternative interpretation of the Korean War and the decisions that were made. Relying on previously unused sources, the author presents a critical assessment of the Truman Administration and its execution of the Korean War.

Lee, Ki-baik. *A New History of Korea*. Translated by Edward W. Wagner and Edward J. Schultz. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1988.

An account of the cultural, political, social, and economic history of Korea. The author traces more than 5,000 years of Korean history, ending with the student revolution in 1960 that brought down Syngman Rhee's presidency.

MacDonald, Callum A. *Korea: The War Before Vietnam*. New York: Free Press, 1987.

A detailed account of the politics, strategy, and events surrounding this controversial war. The author examines how the initially limited war became a superpower confrontation and uses many official documents only recently declassified.

MacDonald, Donald Stone. *The Koreans: Contemporary Politics and Society*. Boulder, Colo.: Westview Press, 1988.

A comprehensive survey of political and social conditions in Korea. The author explains Korea's unique position in Asia, developing role, importance to the United States, and national character.

Nahm, Andrew C. *Panorama of 5000 Years: Korean History*. Elizabeth, N.J.: Hollym International Corp., 1983.

Illustrated chronicle of Korean history. The author offers a general treatment of the history and culture of Korea.

Robinson, Michael E. *Cultural Nationalism in Colonial Korea, 1920–1925*. Seattle: University of Washington Press, 1989.

An in-depth account of the growth of Korean nationalism during the first stages of Japan's occupation of Korea. Koreans' efforts to establish a national identity during this period formed the drive for independence that continued throughout the colonial period.

Rutt, Richard. *James Scarth Gale's History of the Korean People*. Seoul: Royal Asiatic Society, Korea Branch, 1975.

A structured sequence of anecdotes highlighting Korean historical and cultural experiences. This is a biography of one of Korea's earliest missionaries and foremost scholars.

Suh, Dae-Sook. *Kim Il-Sung: The North Korean Leader*. New York: Columbia University Press, 1988.

A biography of the most influential person in North Korean history. The treatment of Kim's life also details the origins, development, and policies of North Korea.

Culture and Society

This section covers Korean cultural life and values and the arts.

Covell, Jon Carter. *Korea's Cultural Roots* (Sixth edition). Elizabeth, N.J.: Hollym International Corp., 1986.

A book dealing with spriritual, artistic, and historical influences on Korean culture. The author examines Korean painting, architecture, ceramics and sculpture to show the roles of Shamanism, Buddhism, and Neo-Confucianism in shaping Korea's cultural heritage.

Crane, Paul S. *Korean Patterns*. Seoul: Royal Asiatic Society, Korea Branch, 1978.

A handbook for orienting Westerners who come to Korea to live and work. Focusing on the traditions of Korea, the author identifies problem areas that visitors are likely to experience. He emphasizes that finding solutions depends on understanding, study, and effort.

Han, Suzanne Crowder. *Korean Folk and Fairy Tales*. Elizabeth, N.J.: Hollym International Corp., 1991.

The English versions of 64 popular Korean stories passed down from generation to generation. The stories reflect the traditions and beliefs and provide insights into present-day Korean culture.

Hur, Sonja V., and Ben S. Hur. *Culture Shock! Korea*. Singapore: Times Books International, 1988.

A guide for understanding Korean culture and the rules of etiquette. Chapters address Korean geography, religion, nonverbal communication, and strategies for developing relationships and doing business in Korea.

Lee, O-Young. *In This Earth, In That Wind*. Translated by David I. Steinberg. Seoul: Royal Asiatic Society, Korea Branch, 1967.

A series of 50 essays by a Korean writer about his society. The author takes the commonplace in Korea, such as stone walls, names, clothes, songs, and love, and draws a picture of Korean society.

Robinson, James H. "Social Typing in Korean Schools: The Effects of Differential Teacher Interactional Styles." Stanford, Calif.: Stanford University, 1983 (unpublished doctoral dissertation).

Research conducted in Korean schools investigates how differences in interactional styles between teachers and students affect student achievement. The findings of the study indicate that teachers categorize students by social stereotypes and that this social typing triggers self-fulfilling prophecies and affects student achievement. The study concludes with an explanation of the uses of social typing in education as part of the dynamics of Korean society.

Rutt, Richard. *Korean Works and Days: Notes from the Diary of a Country Priest*. Rutland, Vt.: Charles E. Tuttle Company, Inc., 1964.

Reflections and impressions of country life. This one-year account (1957–58) of important events in a rural village conveys the atmosphere and character of the people as they begin to adapt to modern influences.

Sorensen, Clark W. *Over the Mountains Are Mountains: Korean Peasant Households and Their Adaptations to Rapid Industrialization.* Seattle: University of Washington Press, 1987.

A description of the economic and social organization of rural Korean groups and their changing environment. The author provides a detailed look at new technology, the family system, and the government's economic and agricultural policies.

Wiley, Richard. *Festival for Three Thousand Maidens.* New York: Dutton, 1991.

A fictional account of a U.S. Peace Corps volunteer's experiences as a middle school English teacher in a small town in Korea. A former Peace Corps volunteer himself, the author presents an account of one American's effort to learn to live among Koreans.

Winchester, Simon. *Korea: A Walk Through the Land of Miracles.* New York: Prentice Hall Press, 1988.

A chronicle of the writer's walk from the southern tip of Korea to Seoul and the border with North Korea. The author describes the past and present of Korea and the persistence of tradition in the midst of tumultuous social and economic changes.

Wright, Edward Reynolds, and Mansil Pai. *Korean Furniture: Elegance and Tradition.* New York: Kodansha International/U.S.A., Ltd., 1985.

A systematic survey of Korean furniture—its shapes, styles, woods, and folk art history. Through careful writing and detailed photographs, the authors document the importance of handcrafted furniture in Korean culture. This publication is available from Harper & Row Publishers, Inc. The address for orders is Keystone Industrial Park, Scranton, PA 18512.

Yoo, Yushin. *Korea the Beautiful: Treasures of the Hermit Kingdom.* Murray, Ky.: Golden Pond Press, 1987.

A general introduction to Korea, with a presentation of color photos, illustrations, maps, and text. The book highlights geography, culture, arts, and customs.

Business and Finance

The books in this section cover Korea's economic development and offer resources and information on living and working in Korea.

Amsden, Alice H. *Asia's Next Giant: South Korea and Late Industrialization*. New York: Oxford University Press, 1989.

A description of why South Korean economic development has been so rapid. This comparative analysis examines major institutions and offers a full analysis of South Korea's industrialization.

De Mente, Boye. *Korean Etiquette and Ethics in Business*. Lincolnwood, Ill.: National Textbook Company Business Books, 1988.

An analysis of the history, morals, and values that shape the Korean business personality. The author provides detailed explanations of why Koreans do business the way they do, with practical suggestions for outsiders who are interested in dealing with the Korean market.

Kang, T. W. *Is Korea the Next Japan? Understanding the Structure, Strategy, and Tactics of America's Next Competitor*. New York: Free Press, 1988.

A look at the economic development and current economic and industrial policies of Korea. The author analyzes the structure, strategy, and tactics of America's next competitor from Asia.

Kelly, Brian, and Mark London. *The Four Little Dragons*. New York: Simon and Schuster, Inc., 1989.

An analysis of Korea and three other powerful countries of the Pacific Rim: Taiwan, Hong Kong, and Singapore. Based on the authors' 18-month travel through the countries, the book explores what these emerging economic powers mean to the present and future of the United States.

Leppert, Paul. *Doing Business with the Koreans: A Handbook for Executives*. Chula Vista, Calif.: Patton Pacific Press, Inc., 1987.

A book on Korean culture and the economic and business environment in the country. The author also provides information on living and working in Korea.

Living in Korea (Fourth edition). Edited by Richard B. Rucci. Rutland, Vt.: Charles E. Tuttle Company, Inc., 1987.

A detailed source of information on all elements of adapting to life in Korea. The book is designed to help newcomers adjust to working, getting around, and getting things done, with emphasis on life in Seoul.

Steinberg, David I. *The Republic of Korea: Economic Transformation and Social Change*. Boulder, Colo.: Westview Press, 1988.

An examination of the complexities of Korean culture, including its history, politics, and economic development. The book analyzes the modern economic growth of the country and the resurgence of national pride.

Underwood, Lorraine A. *International Business Handbook: Republic of Korea*. Arlington, Va.: Global Quest, Inc., 1988.

A list of 1,000 sources of information on Korea regarding business and international trade. Addresses, phone numbers, and contact persons are provided for entities in Korea and the United States involved in maintaining business relationships between these two countries. Sources include governmental bodies, nonprofit organizations, trade associations, universities, and think tanks.

Immigration History and Korean-American Life

The following books and materials detail the history of Korean immigration to the United States and introduce observations on life here from the perspective of a Korean American.

Choy, Bong Youn. *Koreans in America*. Chicago: Nelson Hall, Inc., 1979.

A history of Koreans in America from their first arrival in Hawaii in 1882 through the postwar period and on to 1976. The author provides the historical background of Korea and Korean-American relations, the history of early Korean immigrants and their social and political activities, and an analysis of postwar Korean immigration.

Holt, Daniel D. "Korean Cultural Patterns: Implications for the Classroom." Sacramento: Bilingual Education Office, California Department of Education, 1990.

A summary of cultural background characteristics of Korean-American students. The author describes pertinent aspects of Koreans and their culture and provides suggestions for planning and implementing educational programs.

Kim, Bok-Lim C. *The Asian Americans: Changing Patterns, Changing Needs*. Montclair, N.J.: Association of Korean Christian Scholars in North America, Inc., 1978.

A comprehensive picture of the needs for public services, problem-solving strategies, and patterns for use of publice services by Koreans and three other Asian-American groups—Chinese, Japanese, and Filipinos. The author bases her findings on data collected during 1973–74 in the Chicago area.

Kim, Bok-Lim C. *The Korean-American Child at School and at Home.* Project Report, September 30, 1978–June 30, 1980. San Mateo, Calif.: The Japanese-American Curriculum Project, 1980.

A report of a two-year research project on Korean Americans in Chicago and Los Angeles. The research investigates the nature of the interaction between school and home as a way to determine the nature of the school experiences of Korean-American children. The major findings and recommendations are summarized separately for parents, teachers, and administrators. This project is available from the Japanese-American Curriculum Project, 414 E. Third St., P.O. Box 367, San Mateo, CA 94401.

Kim, Chang-Ho. "Korean Language Schools in Southern California." Stockton, Calif.: The University of Pacific, (doctoral dissertation to be completed in the spring of 1992).

A description of the nature and function of Korean language schools in southern California, the largest settlement of Korean Americans in the United States. The study analyzes data collected from three schools, two in densely populated urban areas and one in a suburban area of Los Angeles County. Based on a sample of 120 students, 120 parents, 45 teachers, and three principals, the study (1) examines the efforts of Korean Americans to maintain their language and culture through ethnic language schools; (2) explores and interprets factors that give rise to Korean language schools; (3) investigates the attitudes of teachers, parents, and students about teaching and learning the Korean language and their degree of satisfaction with Korean language schools; (4) makes recommendations concerning language and cultural maintenance through Korean language schools; and (5) suggests further research that is needed on Korean language schools.

Kim, Ronyoung. *Clay Walls.* Sag Harbor, N.Y.: The Permanent Press, 1986.

A novel depicting the life of a Korean-American family in the early days of the Korean community in the United States. The author addresses the history of early Korean immigrant families and examines issues that have confronted them and their American-born children.

The Korean Diaspora: Historical and Sociological Studies of Korean Immigration and Assimilation in North America. Edited by Hyung-chan Kim. Santa Barbara, Calif.: ABC-Clio, Inc., 1977.

A series of essays that report on research conducted on Korean immigration and adaptation to the United States. Topics include the causes of immigration and the roles of the Korean church, community organizations, and business enterprises.

Robinson, James H. "Cultural Differences in the Classroom: Korea and America," *East West Education*, Vol. 3 (1982), pp. 83–99.

An analysis of some of the major differences in the ways Koreans and Americans think about and behave in school. The author argues that in U.S. classrooms Korean students receive less supervision than they were accustomed to in Korea and have difficulty adjusting to situations that require one to cooperate and act independently. Teachers are urged to become aware of the needs of Korean-American students in order to facilitate their cultural and academic learning more effectively. This journal is published by Ewha Woman's University in Seoul.

Spaventa, Louis J. "Korean-American Educational Attitudes: A Thesis in Educational Theory and Policy." University Park: The Pennsylvania State University, 1987 (unpublished doctoral dissertation).

The results of a bilingual survey to investigate demographic characteristics and educational attitudes of Korean Americans, principally in southern California. The researcher found that Korean Americans tend to share attitudes that become increasingly more American over time. Korean Americans are different from both Koreans and other Americans; but with the passage of time in the United States, they tend to resemble their American counterparts more than their Korean ones with respect to values, cultural orientation, and other attitudes toward education.

Sunoo Shin, Sonia. *Korean Kaleidoscope: Oral Histories, Volume One*. Sacramento, Calif.: United Presbyterian Church, Sierra Mission Area, 1982.

Transcriptions of taped interviews of 18 Koreans who immigrated to the United States between 1903 and 1905. Among the first to come to the United States, these Koreans describe the country they left and the hardships they endured in adapting to the United States.

Takaki, Ronald. *Strangers from a Different Shore: A History of Asian Americans*. Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1989.

An examination of the immigration histories of Indians, Southeast Asians, Filipinos, Chinese, Koreans, and Japanese. The author explores the different experiences each group has had in adjusting to life in the United States and discusses the issues currently confronting Asian Americans.

Korean Literature

Titles listed below were selected to introduce literature by Korean authors to teachers and students. Most of the selections are translations of Korean works, and most are available in Korean and English. In addition to these titles of authentic Korean stories, educators can obtain Korean translations of classical, ancient, and modern works by world authors. These titles are available from the resources listed in Appendix B in the section titled "Educational and Cultural Resources."

Primary Grades (Kindergarten Through Grade Three)

The Filial Daughter, Shim-Ch'eong (효녀 심청 /Hyo-nyeo Shim-ch'eong)

A tale about a dutiful daughter who gives her life to restore her blind father's sight. This traditional story underscores filial piety in Korean culture.

The Golden Ax and the Silver Ax (금도끼 은도끼 /Keum-do-kki Eun-do-kki)

A story about an honest man who loses his ax in the forest. It demonstrates that honesty will be rewarded.

The Hare and the Tortise (별주부전 /Pyeol-ju-bu-jeon)

A story of a hare and a tortise that is completely different from Aesop's fable. In this Korean story the rabbit is able to deceive the tortise, which demonstrates loyalty to its master.

The Herd Boy and the Heavenly Weaver (견우와 직녀 /Kyeon-u-wa Chik-nyeo)

A romantic fairytale that reveals the spirit, fantasies, and humor of the Korean people.

The Korean Cinderella (콩쥐와 팥쥐 /K'ong-gwi-wa P'at-gwi)

The Korean version of Cinderella. The story reveals similarities and differences between Korean and western cultures.

The Tiger and the Persimmon (호랑이와 곶감 /Ho-rang-i-wa Kot-gam)

A fable about a foolish tiger and a crying child. Frightened by a dried persimmon, the tiger gives up its plan of carrying off the child.

The Tokkaebi and the Woodcutter (혹부리 할아버지 /Hok-bu-ri Ha-ra-beo-ji)

A well-known folktale of a woodcutter and his encounter with a Korean goblin (*tokaebi*). The story teaches that greed leads to misery.

Two Brothers (의좋은 형제 /Eui-jo-eun Hyeong-je)

A tale of the good relationship between two brothers. It teaches that brotherly love is more important than material possessions.

Two Brothers and Their Magic Gourds (흥부와 놀부 /Heung-bu-wa Nol-bu)

A story about two brothers, one greedy and the other generous. It teaches the value of kindness to others.

The Woodcutter and A Fairy (나뭇꾼과 선녀 /Na-mut-kkun-gwa Seon-nyeo)

A story about a young man who saves a fawn chased by a hunter. The young deer repays the man's kindness by telling him the secret of a heavenly maiden, whom he later marries.

Upper Grades (Grades Four Through Six)

A Bag of Laughter (웃음 보따리 /U-seum Po-tta-ri). Seoul: Minso Publishers.

A collection of jokes, gags, and farcical anecdotes that children will love.

Best Friends, Osong and Hanum (꾸러기 단짝 오성과 한음 /Kku-reo-gi Tan-jjak O-Seong-gwa Han-Eeum). Seoul: Minso Publishers.

A fictional account of a lifetime friendship between two high officials of the Chosun Dynasty, O-Seong and Han-Eum. A favorite among upper-grade elementary students.

Children's Poems (파란 마음 하얀 마음 /P'a-ran Ma-eum Ha-yan Ma-eum). Seoul: Yerimdang Publishers.

An award-winning anthology of 100 well-known poems by 72 Korean poets.

History of Korea (이야기 한국사 /I-ya-gi Han-guk-sa). Seoul: Yerimdang Publishers.

An easy-to-read history of Korea from its beginning about 4,300 years ago to the end of the Fourth Republic in 1979. In addition to historical events and people, the book covers economics, social life, customs, and culture.

History of the Three Kingdoms (삼국사기 /Sam-guk-sa-gi). Seoul: Yerimdang Publishers.

A history of the Three Kingdoms Era—Koguryo, Paekche, and Shilla. The first formal historical records of Korea began during this period.

Hooray, Failure! (꼴찌 만만세 /Kkol-jji Man-man-se). Seoul: Minso Publishers.

A story about a fifth-grade boy who always ranks at the bottom of his class in academics but proves that he is not a failure in being a good buddy to his friends.

Korean Ethics (이야기 명심보감 /I-ya-gi Mong-shim Po-gam) Two volumes. Seoul: Yerimdang Publishers.

Classical writings that teach morals and ethics. Written in language that children can understand.

The Sad Sunflower (슬픈 해바라기 /Seul-p'eun Hae-ba-ra-gi). Seoul: Minso Publishers.

The story of a twelve-year-old boy who learns the secret of his adoption and runs away from home to find his biological parents.

A Story of Yalgae (얄개전 /Yal-gae-jeon). Seoul: Minso Publishers.

A favorite classical novel about a naughty seventh-grade rogue.

Teachers Like Classroom Clowns (선생님은 괴짜를 좋아해 /Seon-saeng-nim-eun Kwoe-jja-reul Cho-a-hae). Seoul: Dae Kyo Publishers.

A collection of 20 humorous stories by elementary school teachers who introduce and describe their lovable classroom students.

Secondary (Grades Seven Through Twelve)

Ahn, Junghyo. *White Badge: A Novel of Korea.* New York: Soho Press, Inc., 1989.

A modern tale about a Vietnam War veteran who is constantly haunted by his past and struggling with life in ever-changing Seoul.

Anonymous. "Chunhyangjon."

A classic Korean story that is passed from generation to generation. This story tells of the love that develops between an upperclass man and the daughter of a female entertainer.

Chung, Donald K. *The Three-Day Promise: A Korean Soldier's Memoir.* Tallahassee, Fla.: Father and Son Publishing, 1989.

An autobiography of the life of a North Korean soldier who eventually escaped to South Korea during the Korean War, became a medical doctor, and immigrated to the United States. He returns to North Korea after 33 years to be reunited with his family.

Hwang, Sunwon. "Cranes," in *Flowers of Fire: Twentieth-Century Korean Stories.* Edited and translated by Peter H. Lee. Honolulu: University of Hawaii Press, 1986.

A short story depicting the nature of friendship and trust. The author is recognized as a master of the short story form.

Kang, Sinjae. "The Young Zelkova" in *Flowers of Fire: Twentieth-Century Korean Stories.* Edited and translated by Peter H. Lee. Honolulu: University of Hawaii Press, 1986.

Narrated by an eighteen-year-old girl whose relationship with her stepbrother grows until they fall in love.

Kim, Jungshik. *Lost Love.* Translated by Joyce Jaihyun Kim. Seoul: Pan Korea Book Corporation, 1975.

A collection of 99 poems written by So-Wol, the pen name of a famous Korean poet.

Kim, Richard. *The Martyred.* Seoul: Si-sa-young-o-sa Publishers, 1962.

A novel exploring the spiritual and moral dilemmas arising from the execution of 12 Christian ministers by the retreating North Korean army during the Korean War.

Kim, Ronyoung. *Clay Walls.* Sag Harbor, N.Y.: The Permanent Press,1986.

The story of a Korean-American family as seen through the eyes of mother, father, and daughter. Set in Los Angeles in the mid-1920s, this fascinating account presents one person's view of what it means to be a Korean American.

Kim, Tongni. "Portrait of Shaman," in *Flowers of Fire: Twentieth-Century Korean Stories.* Edited and translated by Peter H. Lee. Honolulu: University of Hawaii Press, 1986.

A short story written in 1936 depicting a world of primitive mysticism conveyed through Mohwa, a sorceress. The story shows the author's escape from reality through superstition and his fatalistic and nihilistic belief that man is doomed by the forces of nature.

O, Yong-jin, and others. *Wedding Day and Other Korean Plays.* Translated by G. Slettland and others. Arch Cape, Ore.: Pace International Research, Inc., 1988.

Wedding Day is one of the most famous plays written in Korea. This humorous story illustrates many aspects of life in the Choson Kingdom,

in particular the practice of arranging marriages between individuals who had never met before the ceremony.

The Silence of Love: Twentieth-Century Korean Poetry. Edited by Peter H. Lee. Honolulu: University of Hawaii Press, 1980.

A collection of poetry.

So, Chongju. *Unforgettable Things*. Translated by David McCann. Seoul: Si-sa-yong-o-sa, 1986.

A collection of poetry in which So blends portraits of himself into an autobiography that is also a history of Korea.

Yi, Hyosok. "Buckwheat Season," in *Flowers of Fire: Twentieth-Century Korean Stories*. Edited and translated by Peter H. Lee. Honolulu: University of Hawaii Press, 1986.

A short story written in 1936 in which the author extolls nature and seeks a peaceful life in the existing order.

Zong, In-sob. *Folktales from Korea* (Third edition). Elizabeth, N.J.: Hollym International Corp., 1982.

A collection of 99 myths, legends, fairy tales, and stories from old Korea translated by the author. The selections are representative of the various folk traditions of Korea.

Korean Language Materials

The following is a partial list of materials for teaching the Korean language. Most of these publications were written for adults learning Korean as a foreign language.

Chang, Suk-in. *Modern Conversational Korean* (Vol. 1). Evanston, Ill.: Ametra Corp., 1982.

Written to help foreign residents of Korea learn Korean, this textbook consists of 90 sections of conversational phrases, notes on grammar, exercises, and a section on pronunciation. The content is designed to cover one section per classroom hour for an 18-week semester. The focus is on teaching adults and young adults the basic conversational skills necessary for daily activities and includes subjects and activities titled, for example, "Taking a Taxi," "A Fruit Stand," "The Flavor of *Pulgogi*," "Tearoom," and "Hotel Reservations." The instructions are in English, and the text is in Korean. A glossary and index are included.

Cheong, Un Bok. *Talking Business in Korean.* Hauppauge, N.Y.: Barron's Educational Series, Inc., 1988.

A glossary of more than 3,000 business terms in Korean and English. Words and phrases are related to accounting, advertising, sales, banking, computers, importing/exporting, finance and investment, labor relations, manufacturing, and marketing. The volume also contains maps of Korea, trade information, and useful abbreviations.

Holt, Daniel, and Grace Holt. *Korean at a Glance.* Hauppauge, N.Y.: Barron's Educational Series, Inc., 1988.

A phrase book and a dictionary (English-Korean and Korean-English) designed especially for travelers. It is organized by topics and has cultural and travel information concerning the topic and related language expressions. Topics include geography, banking, transportation, entertainment, shopping, health and medical care, and Korean grammar. The text is written in Korean and is romanized for English speakers.

Ihm, Ho Bin, and others. *Korean Grammar for International Learners.* Seoul: Yonsei University Press, 1988.

A reference grammar for adult students. The text is organized into Part I, "Basic Grammar," and Part II, "Advanced Grammar." "Basic Grammar" introduces the major grammatical categories such as nouns, verbs, particles, and conjunctives as well as some structural descriptions of passives and causatives, "negation," and "honorific forms of speech." Part II, "Advanced Grammar," presents idiomatic usage and more complex issues of dependent and independent nouns, different types of adverbs, conjunctives, and various sentence endings. Originally written in Korean and then translated into English, this textbook is useful for college-level Korean students as a reference grammar for an accompanying textbook. An index in Korean and English and a bibliography are also included.

Korean for Travelers. Berlitz Guides. New York: Macmillan Publishing Co., 1986.

A Korean phrase book for travelers. Chapters deal with such topics as hotels, dining, recreation, shopping, and banks. Romanization of Korean expressions is provided.

Lukoff, Fred. *A First Reader in Korean Writing in Mixed Script.* Seoul: Yonsei University Press, 1982.

Designed for instructing intermediate-level students in reading comprehension skills. This textbook presents *hanja* (Chinese characters) as a part of the lessons. Beginning with an introduction to *hanja*, each lesson is composed of the text, a glossary, and application and review exercises. The volume progresses from simple, short sentences in Book I to complex, long sentences in Book IV, with a systematic introduction of *hanja* for the vocabulary. With content drawn from social, cultural, and historical topics, the textbook contains readings on such topics as *chiri* (geography), *ka-chung saeng-hwal* (family life), and *chae-p'an* (trial). Also included are a glossary and an index of characters.

Lukoff, Fred. *An Introductory Course in Korean*. Seoul: Yonsei University Press, 1982.

A student's textbook of 24 lessons for beginning-level Korean. The course presents the basics of Korean orthography, phonetics, and grammar. *Han-gul* is used with limited romanization based on the McCune-Reischauer system. Each lesson contains sample phrases, dialogues, grammatical explanations, exercises, and a glossary of key vocabulary.

Martin, Samuel E., and Young-Sook Lee. *Beginning Korean*. Rutland, Vt.: Charles E. Tuttle Company, Inc., 1986.

One of the earliest Korean textbooks published in the United States. The entire textbook, containing 30 lessons, is written in the Yale romanization without introducing *han-gul*. Originally written for beginning-level students, particularly for missionaries, the topics and vocabulary reflect the language needs of these students. Each lesson is organized into basic sentences, supplementary vocabulary, notes, exercises, conversation, vocabulary drill, and comprehension. Also included are audiotapes for readings and Korean-English and English-Korean glossaries.

Park, Francis Y. T. *Speaking Korean: Book I and Book II*. Elizabeth, N.J.: Hollym International Corporation, 1991.

Each of the 35 units in this textbook consists of basic sentences, useful expressions, notes on the basic sentences, structural notes, drills, short stories, and reading. The lessons emphasize memorization of and drill on useful expressions for various situations. A glossary is also provided. Book I was revised in 1991.

Rogers, Michael; Clare You; and Kyungnyun K. Richards. *College Korean*. Berkeley: The University of California Press, 1992.

Written for beginning-level college students in the United States, the textbook is designed for teaching listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills. Consisting of 26 lessons, the textbook is designed for studying one lesson per week for one academic year (two semester or three-quarter system). Each lesson consists of a situation-based dialogue, patterns, grammar and notes, and exercises. About 150 Sino-Korean characters are also introduced for those who wish to acquire a preliminary knowledge of *hanja*. A glossary, index to grammar, and notes both in Korean and English are included.

Vandesande, Anthony V. *Myongdo's Korean, Part I and Part II*. Seoul: U-shin Sa, 1968.

Originally written for a Korean language institute in Seoul, the content of this textbook emphasizes acquiring speaking skills by using the drills for response, pattern, substitution, and expansion. The series consists of 38 lessons, each of which contains a basic dialogue, remarks, structural explanations, and drills. Also included is a glossary-index for each lesson and an index-guide to grammatical structures.

Wagner, E., and C. Kim. *Elementary Written Korean*. Northampton, Mass.: SinFac Minor, Inc., 1971.

A series of three volumes, one in Korean, one in Sino-Korean, and one for grammar and glossary. This textbook is for teaching adults to read Korean. The section on grammar includes descriptions of nuances in the Korean language. A glossary and answers for the exercises are provided.

APPENDIX A

Districts Ranked by Enrollment of Limited-English-Proficient Students Who Speak Korean

California law requires that each year school districts conduct a language census as a way to identify students who are considered to be limited-English proficient (LEP). Once these students have been identified, state law requires that they be offered bilingual learning opportunities.

A survey taken during the 1989–90 school year revealed that 33,567 students in California used Korean as their primary language. Of those students 13,389 (about 40 percent) were identified as limited-English proficient.[1]

School districts listed in the following table are ranked according to the total population of LEP students whose primary language is Korean (Column 1). Data are also provided for the total number of LEP students in the district who speak Korean (Column 2). The district's enrollment of that language group is shown as a percent of the state's total enrollment of Korean-speaking students (Column 3).

These data do not include students in preschools, adult education programs, juvenile halls, or regional occupational centers and programs.

---

[1] "DATA/BICAL REPORT 90-2." Sacramento: California Department of Education, 1990.

Districts Ranked by Enrollment of Limited-English-Proficient Students Who Speak Korean, Spring, 1990

School district	*(1)* *Rank by number of LEP (Korean) students*	*(2)* *Number of LEP (Korean) students*	*(3)* *District LEP (Korean) students as a percent of all LEP (Korean) students*
Los Angeles Unified	1	3,712	27.7
Glendale Unified	2	1,209	9.0
ABC Unified	3	728	5.4
Torrance Unified	4	503	3.8
Garden Grove Unified	5	326	2.4
Irvine Unified	6	248	1.9
Anaheim Union High	7	223	1.7
San Francisco Unified	8	209	1.6
Rowland Unified	9	197	1.5
Downey Unified	10	183	1.4
Palos Verdes Peninsula Unified	11	158	1.2
Fullerton Elementary	12	156	1.2
Monterey Peninsula Unified	13	146	1.1
Hacienda La Puente Unified	14	134	1.0
Centralia Elementary	15	132	1.0
Norwalk-La Mirada Unified	16	122	0.9
Fremont Unified	17	119	0.9
Bellflower Unified	18	115	0.9
Fullerton Joint Union High	19	113	0.8
Walnut Valley Unified	20	112	0.8
Santa Clara Unified	21	101	0.8
Arcadia Unified	22	92	0.7
Anaheim Elementary	23	87	0.6

Districts Ranked by Enrollment of Limited-English-Proficient Students Who Speak Korean, Spring, 1990 (Continued)

School district	*(1)* *Rank by number of LEP (Korean) students*	*(2)* *Number of LEP (Korean) students*	*(3)* *District LEP (Korean) students as a percent of all LEP (Korean) students*
Orange Unified	24	87	0.6
Burbank Unified	25	84	0.6
San Diego City Unified	26	83	0.6
Saddleback Valley Unified	27	79	0.6
Sacramento City Unified	28	78	0.6
Huntington Beach Union High	29	75	0.6
Placentia Unified	30	72	0.5
Cupertino Union	31	70	0.5
Fremont Union High	32	69	0.5
Alameda City Unified	33	67	0.5
Tustin Unified	34	66	0.5
Richmond Unified	35	64	0.5
Culver City Unified	36	63	0.5
Long Beach Unified	37	63	0.5
Magnolia Elementary	38	56	0.4
Buena Park Elementary	39	55	0.4
Fountain Valley Elementary	40	55	0.4
Mt. Diablo Unified	41	53	0.4
Milpitas Unified	42	53	0.4
East Side Union High	43	52	0.4
Hayward Unified	44	50	0.4
San Juan Unified	45	50	0.4
Chula Vista Elementary	46	50	0.4

APPENDIX B

Educational and Cultural Resources

This appendix contains a partial list of sources of materials that teachers may use for teaching students about the culture and language of Korea. Listed in this section are teaching materials; films and videos; bilingual materials and resources; language programs; bookstores; community and social welfare organizations; media, such as Korean radio and television stations, business directories, and magazines and newsletters; language schools; educational and cultural associations and institutions; and agencies of the Korean government. Many of the sources in this section originally appeared in the "Resource Guide for Korean-American Education," prepared by Randy Grant and distributed in 1990 by the Korean-American Education Association of Los Angeles.

Teaching Materials

The Asia Society (212) 288-6400
Education Department
725 Park Avenue
New York, NY 10021

The Asia Society (213) 624-0945
Southern California Center
Arco Plaza
505 South Flower Street, Level C
Los Angeles, CA 90071

The organization offers a variety of materials on Korea and other Asian countries. *Korea: A Teacher's Guide*, a highly recommended comprehensive reference, is available through the New York office.

Bay Area Global Education Project (BAGEP) (415) 982-3263
312 Sutter Street, Suite 200
San Francisco, CA 94108

The project offers a variety of students' and teachers' materials on Korea for kindergarten through grade twelve. Also available are folktales and other literature.

East Rock Institute (203) 624-8619
703A Yale Station
New Haven, CT 06520

The institute produces and distributes teaching materials about Korea and Korean-American issues.

Fairfax County Public Schools (Virginia) (703) 698-7500
Department of Instructional Services
3705 Crest Drive
Annendale, VA 22003

This school district publishes *English as a Second Language Cultural Notes (Korea)*. This publication contains information for teachers on the cultural background of Korean students. Similar versions are available for students from Cambodia, Vietnam, Japan, Afghanistan, Costa Rica, Panama, El Salvador, and Guatemala.

Greenshower Corporation (818) 575-1000
10937 Klingerman Street Collect: (818) 575-0294
P.O. Box 9118 Fax: (818) 443-4020
South El Monte, CA 91733

This organization distributes a variety of literature books containing Korean folktales and short stories for children of all ages and provides a number of famous stories by world authors in English with Korean translations. The company also offers dictionaries, videos, audio study materials, and computerized teaching materials for Korean, Vietnamese, Japanese, and other Asian languages.

Hawaii Bilingual/Bicultural Education Project (808) 956-7842
Curriculum Research and Development Group
Castle Memorial Annex
1776 University Avenue
Honolulu, HI 96822

The project offers the *Korean Resource Book for Teachers*, a book with extensive information about Korea, including vocabulary, poetry, riddles, folktales, dances, recipes, and other culturally related units for elementary school students.

Heldref Publications (800) 365-9753
4000 Albemarle Street, NW
Washington, DC 20016

A division of the nonprofit Helen Dwight Reid Educational Foundation, Heldref Publications publishes *The Social Studies*, a bimonthly magazine on educational and cultural themes. The July/August, 1988, issue, entitled "The United States and the Pacific Rim: Focus on South Korea," contains an examination of modern Korean life. This organization also publishes *Change: The Magazine for Higher Learning*, which featured articles about Asia in the November/December, 1989, issue entitled "Asian and Pacific Americans: Behind the Myths."

Hollym International Corporation (908) 353-1655
18 Donald Place FAX (908) 353-0255
Elizabeth, NJ 07208

This publisher specializes in books in English about Korea, including children's stories and Korean language materials.

Japanese American Curriculum Project, Inc. (JACP) (415) 343-9408
P.O. Box 367
414 East Third Avenue
San Mateo, CA 94401

This nonprofit educational corporation specializes in Asian-American languages and cultures. It offers bilingual dictionaries, bilingual folktales, materials about Korean culture, games, and materials for learning elementary Korean; for example, students' textbooks, flash cards, and audiotapes. Also available are a number of bilingual Korean literature books containing English and Korean versions of popular Korean stories.

The following publications are available through this organization:

Bang, Im, and Yi Ryuk. *Korean Folktales, Imps, Ghosts, and Fairies.* Rutland, Vt.: Charles E. Tuttle Co., Inc., 1962. This book contains short stories for children of all ages.

Korea's Favorite Tales and Lyrics. Edited by Peter Hyun. Rutland, Vt.: Charles E. Tuttle Co., Inc., 1986. Folktales, poems, songs, and stories with full-color illustrations appear in this publication.

Moffett, Eileen F. *Korean Ways.* Rutland, Vt.: Charles E. Tuttle Co., Inc., 1986. This illustrated, intermediate-level reader explores elements of the Korean culture for the young student.

Korean Identity Development Society (KIDS) (206) 542-8646
Sandi Mehl, President
503 North 190th Street
Seattle, WA 98133

This organization provides resources for families that have adopted Korean children. Available from KIDS is *Korea, My Motherland*, by Edward B.

Adams, which describes Korea's cultural heritage. The content is suitable for students of any background interested in learning about Korea and its history, language, development, and cultural arts.

Library of Congress (202) 707-5424
Korean Section, Asian Division
Washington, DC 20540

The library offers a collection of books and materials on a variety of subjects related to Korea. A listing of publications is available through most libraries in the *Far Eastern Languages Catalog* (Z 3009.U56), published by G. K. Hall, Boston, Massachusetts.

Los Angeles Unified School District (213) 625-6106
Asian Languages Programs
Office of Bilingual/ESL Instruction
450 North Grand Avenue, Room G-290
Los Angeles, CA 90012

The district provides resources for teachers and students. Materials include:

Asian-American Kit, Elementary. The kit consists of two teachers' guides, nine filmstrips, and ten tape cassettes that depict the history and cultures of the Chinese, Filipino, Japanese, Korean, and Samoan peoples, with added emphasis on those now living in southern California. Boxed in a carrying case, this kit is recommended for grades four through six. The order number is 460042.

Asian-American Kit, Secondary. The kit consists of two teachers' guides, ten filmstrips, and ten tape cassettes that depict the history and cultures of the Chinese, Filipino, Japanese, Korean, and Samoan peoples, with emphasis on groups now living in southern California. Boxed in a carrying case, this kit is recommended for grades seven through twelve. The order number is 46003.

Royal Asiatic Society, Korea Branch Seoul (82-2): 763-8483
611 CBS Building
Chongro-gu, 5-ga
C.P.O. Box 255
Seoul, Korea

This organization fosters understanding of Korean history and culture. In addition to developing its own publications, the society is a major distributor of English-language books published in Korea.

Social Studies School Service
10200 Jefferson Boulevard
Room 16
P.O. Box 802
Culver City, CA 90232-0802

(213) 839-2436
(800) 421-4246

This service offers a variety of social studies material, much of it dedicated to cross-cultural studies. Two resources offered are:

Teaching About Korea: Elementary and Secondary Activities. A highly recommended resource on many aspects of Korean culture and history, this book provides activities suitable for use in a variety of social studies classes. Topics include the Confucian ethic, education, family celebrations, holidays, food, the Korean writing system, proverbs, poetry, folklore, trade, and Koreans in America. Included are activities for all grade levels with objectives and step-by-step directions. The order number is SSE 120-19.

Welcome to Korea. An Introduction. This interdisciplinary curriculum on Korea's culture and history presents a variety of high-interest lesson plans and activities. Activities include learning the Korean alphabet, eating with chopsticks, and converting the dollar into Korean currency. "Korean Quest," a six- to ten-day group research project and quiz, assigns points for correct answers to questions about many aspects of Korea. Answers are included. Grades seven through nine. The order number is LG 100-19.

Yonsei University Press
134 Shinchon-dong, Sudaemoon-ku
Seoul, Republic of Korea 120

This publisher produces and distributes a variety of books in English on Korean literature, history, culture, and language.

Films and Videos

The Asia Society
Education Department
725 Park Avenue
New York, NY 10021

(212) 288-6400

Discover Korea. This is a series of three video packages, each of which contains a 25-minute video, a teacher's manual, and a double-sided poster. Programs view contemporary Korean society and daily life from the viewpoint of Korean schoolchildren. Recommended for upper elementary and junior high. The order number is DKI 000.

Each package is described as follows:

I. "Family and Home." A look at contemporary Korean family life through the eyes of a Korean sixth grader. The order number is DKI 001.

II. "School and Community." An exploration of the educational system and community environment of today's Korea. The order number is DKI 002.

III. "Geography and Industry." An examination of the geography and remarkable industrial development of Korea. The order number is DKI 003.

Korean Cultural Center (213) 936-7141
5505 Wilshire Boulevard
Los Angeles, CA 90036

This organization offers a wide range of films and videos on Korean culture as well as a quarterly magazine, *Korean Culture*. This agency also has a library of materials in English and Korean and schedules exhibits and programs designed to further the public's understanding of Korea.

Korean Youth Media Project (213) 343-4447
Pacific Rim Institute
c/o Professor Joan B. Wilson
King Hall C2057
California State University, Los Angeles
5151 State University Drive
Los Angeles, CA 90032

Communicating Across Cultures and Generations. A series of three videotapes and accompanying discussion guides are designed to assist students from Korea in their adjustment to the American school system and culture. The series is also helpful for parents, school administrators, and community members. The series consists of:

Part I "High School in America" (22 minutes)

Part II "Education in America: A Partnership" (21 minutes)

Part III "The Korean-American Student: A Cultural Transition" (25 minutes)

Bilingual Materials and Resources

Cross Cultural Resource Center (916) 929-3708
California State University, Sacramento
650 University Avenue, Suite 101 B
Sacramento, CA 95825

The center disseminates information about a program for parent education titled *Parenting Curriculum for Language Minority Parents*. The Program includes a textbook in English, a bilingual guide in Korean, and a teacher's guide with detailed lesson plans and sugggested teaching techniques. Thematic units address such topics as parenting strategies, the educational system, mathematics, nutrition, and citizenship. Bilingual guides are also available in Chinese, Hmong, Khmer, Lao, Spanish, and Vietnamese.

National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education (800) 321-6223
Center for Applied Linguistics
1118 22nd Street, NW
Washington, DC 20037

The National Clearinghouse maintains a current "Information Packet for Korean Bilingual Programs" that lists current sources of materials, interested organizations, and bibliographic references of value to Korean bilingual programs. The information packet is free.

National Dissemination Center (508) 678-5696
Fall River Public Schools
417 Rock Street
Fall River, MA 02720

The center distributes students' textbooks in Korean in American history and world history (two volumes each). Also available are students' textbooks and a teacher's handbook for Korean language arts for kindergarten through early elementary levels.

Office of the Santa Clara County
Superintendent of Schools (408) 453-6959
Publications Department (MC 237)
100 Skyport Drive
San Jose, CA 95110-1374

52 Ways to Help Your Child Learn. A Korean language translation of the booklet originally published by the California Teachers Association shows parents how to take an active part in their children's education.

Torrance Unified School District (213) 533-4250
ESEA,Title VII Project
3420 North 229th Place
Torrance, CA 90505

Bilingual course guides (Korean/English) are disseminated for 21 secondary school subjects, including accounting, algebra I and II, geometry, home economics, typing, health education, driver education, U.S. government, world history, U.S. history, economics, biology, chemistry, and physics. Guides are also available in Chinese and Japanese. Materials are provided at cost.

Language Programs

The following is a partial list of university programs in which the Korean language is taught. These programs may be useful sources of materials and information on developing Korean language programs for students at any level. The contact person is provided with each entry (the surname is given last).

This list of resources is based primarily on research conducted by Young-Key Kim-Renaud, Associate Professor, East Asian Languages and Literatures, George Washington University. The title of the source follows:

Kim-Renaud, Young-Key. "The Present State of Korean Language Teaching and Research in the U.S.A," *Han-gul*. Vol. 201–202, pp. 209–270; published by the Korean Language Society, Seoul, Republic of Korea.

For a modified version in French, see "L' État actuel de l' enseignement du Coréen aux Etats-Unis" (Current Status of Teaching of Korean in the United States). *Revue de Corée*, Vol. 21, No. 4, (December, 1989), pp. 52–89; published in French by UNESCO, Korean Branch, Seoul, Republic of Korea. Copies are available from the author or from UNESCO in Seoul.

University Language Programs

Brigham Young University (801) 378-6274
Department of Asian and Near Eastern Languages
4068 JKHB
Provo, UT 84601
Honam Rhee

Brown University (401) 863-3869
Department of East Asian Studies
Box 1850
Providence, RI 02912
Andrew Kim

Columbia University (212) 854-5027
Department of East Asian Languages and Cultures
402 Kent Hall
New York, NY 10027
Carol Shultz

Cornell University (607) 255-0736
Department of Modern Languages and Linguistics
203 Morrill Hall
Ithaca, NY 14853
Gerard Diffloth

Eastern Washington University (509) 359-2270
Institute of Korean-American Affairs
Department of Geography
Cheney, WA 99004
Suk Han Shin

George Mason University (703) 323-3782
Center for Bilingual/Multicultural/ESL
  Teacher Preparation
Department of Curriculum and Instruction
4400 University Drive
Fairfax, VA 22030
Harold S. Chu

George Washington University (202) 994-7107
Department of East Asian Languages and Literature
Washington, DC 20052
Young-Key Kim-Renaud

Harvard University (617) 495-2754
East Asian Languages and Civilizations
2 Divinity Avenue
Cambridge, MA 02138
Namhi Wagner

Indiana University (812) 855-1992
East Asian Languages and Cultures
Goodbody Hall, 248
Indiana University
Bloomington, IN 47405
Kenneth Wells

Johns Hopkins University (301) 356-2128
School of Arts and Science
34th and Charles Streets
Baltimore, MD 21218
Choonwon Kang

Stanford University (415) 723-2521
Asian Languages
Stanford, CA 94305-2934
Young-Mee Cho

State University of New York at Buffalo (716) 636-2292
Center for Critical Languages
Buffalo, NY 14214
Sek Yen Kim Cho

State University of New York at Stony Brook (516) 632-7311
Program in Korean Studies
143 Old Chemistry Building
Stony Brook, NY 11794-3725
Sung Bae Park

University of Alaska (907) 474-6956
Department of Foreign Languages and Literatures
Fairbanks, AK 99701
John Koo

University of California, Berkeley (510) 642-3480
Department of East Asian Languages
104 Durant Hall
UC Berkeley
Berkeley, CA 94720
Clare You/Kay Richards

University of California, Los Angeles (213) 206-8235
East Asian Languages and Cultures
405 Hilgard Avenue
Los Angeles, CA 90024
Peter Lee

University of California, San Diego (619) 534-5914
Graduate School of International
Relations and Pacific Studies, Q-062
3300 Miramar Road
La Jolla, CA 92037-9986
Steven Lee

University of Chicago (312) 702-1255
Department of East Asian Languages and Civilizations
5736 Woodlawn Avenue
Chicago, IL 60637
Suk-In Chang

University of Hawaii at Mansa (808) 956-8940
Department of East Asian Languages and Literatures
Moore Hall, 382
1890 East West Road
Honolulu, HI 96822
Marshall Pihl

University of Illinois, Urbana Champaign (217) 333-4850
Department of East Languages and Cultures
Urbana, IL 61801
Chin-Woo Kim

University of Kansas (913) 864-3849
Department of East Asian Languages and Cultures
Lawrence, KS 66045
Felix Moos

University of Maryland, College Park (301) 405-4239
Department of Hebrew and East Asian
Languages and Literatures
College Park, MD 20742
Robert Ramsey

University of Pennsylvania (215) 898-7466
Department of Oriental Studies
Philadelphia, PA 19104
Michael Lenker

University of Southern California (213) 740-3707
East Asian Languages and Cultures
Taper Hall of Humanities, 226A
Los Angeles, CA 90089-0357
Nam-Kil Kim

University of Washington (206) 543-4996
Asian Languages and Literature
225 Gowen Hall, DO-21
Seattle, WA 98195
David Knechtges

University of Wisconsin-Madison (608) 262-2291
Department of East Asian Languages and Literature
Van Hise Hall, Rm. 1212
1220 Linden Drive
Madison, WI 53706
Naomi H. McGloin

Yale University (203) 432-2860
East Asian Languages and Literatures
1504 A Yale Station
New Haven, CT 06520
Seungja Choi

Language Programs of Other Organizations

Foreign Service Institute (703) 875-7310
Korea Department
Department of State
Room 5602, SA-15
Washington, DC 20520
Eun Bok Cheong

The Foreign Service Institute teaches Korean and other foreign languages to U.S. diplomats. Its Korean language curriculum (instruction book and twelve 90-minute cassettes) is available from Barron's Educational Series, Inc., 250 Wireless Blvd., Hauppauge, NY 11788; telephone: (800) 645-3476.

The International Association for
Korean Language Education (IAKLE)
1043 Via Verde
Del Rey Oaks, CA 93940
John Y. Sohn, Past President

This organization promotes the teaching of the Korean language and publishes a newsletter for members.

Bookstores

The following is a partial list of bookstores that have books about Korea and Korean Americans:

Amerasia Bookstore (213) 680-2888
129 Japanese Village Plaza
Los Angeles, CA 90012

Chong-No Book Center (213) 739-8107
2785 West Olympic Boulevard
Los Angeles, CA 90006

Dong-A Book Plaza (213) 382-7100
3460 West Eighth Street
Los Angeles, CA 90005

Jeong Eum Sa, Inc., Korean Book Center (213) 387-4082
3030 West Olympic Boulevard, Room 111
Los Angeles, CA 90006

Korean Book Center (415) 221-4250
5633 Geary Boulevard
San Francis[illegible] CA 94121

Koreaone Book Center (415) 752-2626
5233 Geary Boulevard
San Francisco, CA 94118

Koryo Books (212) 564-1844
35 West 32nd Street
New York, NY 10001

Kyobo Book Store
Tae Han Education Insurance Building
Chongro 1-ka, 1-peonji
Seoul, Korea

This is one of the largest bookstores in Korea specializing in books about Korea printed in English.

Community and Social Welfare Organizations

The community and social welfare organizations listed in this section offer specialized services: prevention of drug and alcohol abuse; mental health programs; bilingual services; cultural programs; and counseling in areas such as individual and family concerns, legal problems, immigration matters, health care needs, and employment opportunities.[1] These organizations are in southern and northern California.

Organizations in Southern California

Asian-American Drug Abuse Program (213) 293-6284
5318 South Crenshaw Boulevard
Los Angeles, CA 90043

A member of the Korea Town Drug and Alcohol Abuse Prevention Task Force, this program offers bilingual speakers and presentations as well as other prevention, intervention, and treatment programs. Bilingual pamphlets are also available. Office hours are 9 a.m. to 6 p.m., Monday through Friday. Residential service is 24 hours. Fee schedule.

Asian Pacific Counseling and Treatment Center (213) 252-1200
Child and Youth Division
3550 West Sixth Street
Los Angeles, CA 90020

This center offers a variety of bilingual mental health services (including individual, family, and child abuse counseling) on a sliding scale according to a client's ability to pay.

Asian Pacific Family Center (818) 573-3322
3907 North Rosemead Boulevard, #100
Rosemead, CA 91770

Mental health services are provided for individuals and families.

---

[1] Most Korean-American communities have established associations to assist Koreans in their adaptation to the United States. Educators may obtain the names of the community associations in their locales by contacting the nearest Korean Consulate.

Asian Pacific American Legal Center
of Southern California (213) 748-2022
1010 South Flower Street, #302
Los Angeles, CA 90015

Legal counseling and education, referral service, and advocacy are provided for low-income clients.

Center for the Asian Pacific Family (213) 653-4042
543 North Fairfax Avenue, #108
Los Angeles, CA 90036

Bilingual family counseling and crisis intervention are provided.

Coastal Asian Pacific Mental Health Center (213) 217-7300
14112 South Kingsley Drive
Gardena, CA 90247

Information and referral, including immigration and health care concerns, are offered.

Korea Family Counseling and Legal Advice Center (213) 389-6755
610 South Harvard, #230
Los Angeles, CA 90005

Free bilingual family counseling and legal referrals are offered. Open 10 a.m. to 6 p.m, Tuesday through Saturday.

Korean American Coalition (213) 380-6175
610 South Harvard Boulevard, Suite 111
Los Angeles, CA 90005

This advocacy group assists Korean Americans in social and political affairs.

Korean Art Council (818) 449-2742
c/o Pacific Asia Museum
46 North Los Robles Avenue
Pasadena, CA 91101

Workshops are provided on Korean culture, especially arts and crafts, for children, families, and educators.

Korean Federation of Los Angeles (213) 732-0192
981 South Western Avenue, #401
Los Angeles, CA 90006

This nonprofit social service organization offers assistance to immigrants from Korea. Services include providing social workers, social security counseling, paralegal advice, and job information.

Korean Health Education, Information,
and Referral Center (213) 732-5648
981 South Western Avenue, #404
Los Angeles, CA 90006

This nonprofit organization provides bilingual services, including telephone consultation and referral, a health care service directory, educational materials and seminars, information on transport services, and bilingual information on AIDS.

Korean Youth Center (KYC) (213) 383-5218
3986 Ingraham Street
Los Angeles, CA 90005

The center offers a variety of bilingual services to Korean youth, including individual and family counseling, mental health programs serving youth at risk, tutoring, job referrals, and education programs such as preparation classes for the *Scholastic Aptitude Test.* KYC is a member of the Korea Town Drug and Alcohol Abuse Prevention Task Force.

Oriental Service Center (213) 484-6451
1925 W. Temple St., #209A
Los Angeles, CA 90026

Employment information, assistance to low-income persons and families, summer youth programs, and bilingual social workers are provided.

YWCA of Los Angeles/Asian Pacific
Services Program (213) 380-5115
3625 West Sixth Street, #101
Los Angeles, CA 90017

The YWCA offers a wide range of services to women and families, including a Korean language "Women-Helping-Women Talk Line" (213) 380-3345, peer counselor training, consumer protection, classes on various topics, volunteer opportunities, and other programs.

Organizations in Northern California

Asians for Job Opportunities in Berkeley (AJOB) (510) 548-6700
1222 University Avenue
Berkeley, CA 94702

AJOB is a multilingual, multiservice community organization that provides job assistance, English classes, social service referral services, and other help to the Asian community. Services are provided to the Korean community by bilingual employees.

Korean-American Community Service (408) 248-5227
2750 Westfield Avenue
San Jose, CA 95128

This organization provides bilingual social services referrals for Santa Clara County and offers employment information, youth and senior programs, and a community information series.

Korean Center, Inc. (415) 441-1881
1362 Post Street
San Francisco, CA 94109

Referral and counseling, job training, classroom ESL and citizenship, youth and senior activities, and a summer youth camp are provided.

Korean Community Service Center (415) 567-3267
3136 Fulton Street
San Francisco, CA 94118

The center operates bilingual referral services, senior programs, a youth substance abuse program, and employment services.

Korean Community Center of the East Bay (510) 547-2662
3538 Telegraph Avenue
Oakland, CA 94609

The center provides job placement assistance, social services referral, and projects for senior citizens and women.

Media

Korean-language media listed in this section are radio, television, newspapers, directories, and magazines and newsletters. Radio and television stations and publishers are located in Los Angeles and the Bay Area.

Radio Station in Los Angeles

Radio Korea (213) 487-1300
2001 West Olympic Boulevard
Los Angeles, CA 90006
Broadcasts over KAZN (1300 AM)
Daily: 9 a.m. to 6 p.m. and 10 p.m. to 1 a.m.

Television Station in Los Angeles

Korean Television Enterprises (KTE) (213) 382-6700
625 South Kingsley Drive
Los Angeles, CA 90005
Broadcasts over KSCI Channel 18
Monday through Saturday evening broadcasts
Tuesday: 8 p.m. to 11 p.m.

Television Station in San Francisco

Korean Broadcasting Co. (415) 468-5331
455 Valley Drive
Brisbane, CA 94005
Broadcasts over KTSF Channel 26
Monday through Saturday evening broadcasts

Korean Language Newspapers

Hankook Ilbo—Korea Times (213) 487-5323
141 North Vermont Avenue
Los Angeles, CA 90004

Hankook Ilbo—Korea Times (415) 777-1133
679 Bryant Street
San Francisco, CA 94107

Joong-Ang Daily News (213) 389-2500
690 Wilshire Place
Los Angeles, CA 90005

Joong-Ang Daily News (415) 974-6500
685 Harrison Street
San Francisco, CA 94118

Magazines and Newsletters

Korea Times English Edition (213) 487-5323
141 North Vermont Avenue
Los Angeles, CA 90004-4896
Editor: K.W. Lee

This weekly English-language news magazine focuses on Koreans in America.

Korean Culture (213) 936-7141
Korean Cultural Center
5505 Wilshire Boulevard
Los Angeles, CA 90036

Korean Culture, a quarterly magazine published in English, contains articles written by accomplished authors, scholars, and artists. Topics cover Korean life, literature, history, visual and performing arts, ceramics, and other aspects of Korean culture.

Language Schools

Many schools open on weekends throughout California teach Korean language, history, and culture. More information can be obtained from the Korean Consulate General in either San Francisco or Los Angeles.

Educational and Cultural Associations and Institutions

Asian Art Museum of San Francisco (415) 668-8921
Golden Gate Park
San Francisco, CA 94118

The Asian Art Museum of San Francisco is the first major American museum to establish a department devoted exclusively to Korean art. Ms. Keum Ja Kim is Curator for Korean Art.

Association of Korean Education (213) 538-0271
849 East Victoria, #209
Carson, CA 90746

This organization is composed of educators from southern California who have participated in the annual staff development project sponsored by the Korean Government.

Intercountry Adoption Network (818) 248-7250
5220 Cheryl Avenue
La Crescenta, CA 91214
Jean Izon

This organization provides assistance to adoptive families of Korean children in north Los Angeles County and publishes a newsletter.

The International Cultural Society of Korea 82-02-753-3467
C.P.O. Box 2147
Seoul, Korea

This organization promotes the study of Korean language and culture and publishes a quarterly newsletter and *Koreana*, a quarterly magazine on Korean culture. The society also sponsors one- to six-month research fellowships in Korea.

Korean-American Educators Association (213) 625-6106
445 North Windsor Blvd. (213) 466-7763
Los Angeles, CA 90004

This association is devoted to matters concerning Korean-American students and the schools that serve them. It organizes an annual conference on Korean-American education and other special events designed to help educators better understand the needs of Korean-American students and their families. It provides a resource guide for educators that contains human and material resources related to Korean-American education.

Korean Identity Development Society (KIDS) (206) 542-8646
503 North 190th Street
Seattle, WA 98133
Sandi Mehl, President

This society provides resources to adoptive families of Korean children in the Pacific northwest by giving workshops, disseminating materials, and organizing camps for children.

Korean Identity Matters (510) 486-0606
P.O. Box 4460
Berkeley, CA 94704
Doug Kim, Founder

This nonprofit and all-volunteer organization promotes Korean culture among Korean Americans. It operates summer camps and cultural programs nationwide for Korean-American youth.

The Korea Society (213) 935-1560
5505 Wilshire Boulevard
Los Angeles, CA 90036

This nonprofit organization seeks to develop among Koreans and Americans a mutual awareness and understanding of their history, culture, society, and business practices. The organization sponsors meetings, seminars, conferences, exhibitions, film screenings, tours, and publications. It also publishes *The Korea Society Newsletter*.

Los Angeles Hankook Academy (213) 937-2083
4900 Wilshire Boulevard
Los Angeles, CA 90010

The academy is a private Korean school, kindergarten through grade six. It also includes a network of Korean community language schools.

Los Angeles Public Library, Pio Pico Branch (213) 381-1453
2631 W. Olympic Boulevard
Los Angeles, CA 90006

This branch offers Korean language books and bilingual staff.

Korean Government Agencies

Embassy of the Republic of Korea (202) 939-5679
Education Department
2320 Massachusetts Avenue
Washington, DC 20008

Korean Consulate General in Los Angeles (213) 385-9300
Education Attache
3243 Wilshire Boulevard, Fourth Floor
Los Angeles, CA 90010

Korean Consulate General in San Francisco (415) 921-2251
3500 Clay Street
San Francisco, CA 94118

Korean Cultural Center (213) 936-7141
5505 Wilshire Boulevard
Los Angeles, CA 90036

This service provides information about Korean culture through a 30,000-volume lending library (10 percent of the books are in English), ongoing art exhibitions, publications, and a film collection.

Korea National Tourism Corporation (213) 382-3435
3435 Wilshire Boulevard, Suite 350
Los Angeles, CA 90010

This organization provides travel information as well as posters, pamphlets, maps, and booklets about Korea.

Travel and Study Opportunities

Travel and study opportunities in Korea are available for educators through the Korean consulates in San Francisco and Los Angeles and through the U.S. Department of Education.

Korean Bilingual Staff Development Project

A study tour of Korea is offered for educators by the National Institute of Education for Overseas Koreans of the Korean Ministry of Education. Tours are usually scheduled for ten days during July and August of each year. The Korean consulates in either Los Angeles or San Francisco will provide details. The addresses and telephone numbers are listed under "Korean Government Agencies," which appears on the preceding page.

Fellowship Program

The International Cultural Society of Korea provides scholars, students, and other professionals with opportunities to carry out in-depth research in Korea for one to six months.

International Cultural Society of Korea 82-02-753-3467
C.P.O. Box 2147
Seoul, Korea

Fulbright Summer Seminar Program

This intensive five-week travel and study program for teachers and administrators is sponsored by the U.S. Department of Education.

Center for International Education (202) 708-7283
U.S. Department of Education
400 Maryland Avenue, SW
ROB-3, Room 3053
Washington, DC 20202-5332

APPENDIX C

Holidays, Ceremonies, and Festivals

Throughout the year numerous holidays and special events are observed by Koreans at home and abroad wherever Korean communities exist. Some holidays are centuries old; and others are relatively new. Traditional festivals are based on the lunar calendar, and holidays of recent origin are set according to the solar almanac.

New Year's Day—January 1

The first three days of the new year are generally celebrated.

Lunar New Year

Depending on the family's preference, New Year's Day is celebrated according to either the solar or lunar calendar. It is the most important holiday for Koreans, with family members getting together for festive meals. People dress in their best and take a holiday from work. All the family gathers together to observe the ancestral ceremonies. A feast is spread out, and the younger members of the family make a New Year's bow to the elders.

Independence Day (*Sam-il Jeol*)—March 3

This date commemorates March 1, 1919, the date of the nationalist uprising against the Japanese occupation of Korea.

Arbor Day—April 5

On this day government officials, teachers, schoolchildren, and Koreans throughout the country plant trees as part of the government's reforestation program.

Children's Day—May 5

This day is celebrated with a variety of programs for children.

Buddha's Birthday—Eighth day of the fourth month of the lunar calendar.

In honor of Buddha's birthday, Buddhists observe a "lantern festival." Solemn rituals are held at Buddhist temples, and the day's festivities are climaxed by a lantern parade.

***Tan-o* Festival**—Fifth day of the fifth month of the lunar calendar.

The fifth day of May is called Tano (or Dano) Day. According to ancient records, on this day people rest from work, dress up in their best clothes, and feast as they did on New Year's Day. Special events for this day traditionally include wrestling matches for men in which the champion receives a bull as a prize, and swinging competitions for women, in which the winner gets a gold ring.

Liberation Day—August 15

On this day in 1945 Korea was liberated from Japan after 36 years of colonial rule. This day also marks the establishment of the government of the Republic of Korea in 1948.

National Foundation Day—October 3

This day marks the traditional founding of Korea by Tan-gun in 2333 B.C. Legend has it that Tan-gun took on the human form from a mountain spirit and became the father, teacher, and king of the Korean people for 93 years before reascending to the spiritual world.

***Chu-sok* (Moon Festival)**—Fifteenth day of the eighth month of the lunar calendar.

Because this date marks the fall harvest, it is regarded as a day of thanksgiving and is celebrated about as enthusiastically as New Year's Day. One of the great national holidays of the year, it is a time of family reunion and paying respects to ancestors.

***Han-gul* (Korean Alphabet) Day**—October 9

This day is the anniversary of the promulgation of *han-gul*, Korea's phonetic writing system, by King Sejong of the Chosun Kingdom in 1443.

Other Holidays

Memorial Day, June 6
Constitution Day, July 17
Armed Forces Day, October 1
Christmas Day, December 25

Events in Southern California

For one week in the middle of September every year, Korean Americans hold a parade and festival in Los Angeles. The event is cosponsored by the Korea Times, Korea Town Development Association, and the Korean Association of Southern California. During this time Koreans share their music, art, sports, and traditions with their neighbors in southern California.

Events in Northern California

For one week in the spring, Korean Americans in the Bay Area conduct a *Min Sok* Festival. Sponsored by the Korean Center in San Francisco in cooperation with the City of San Francisco, the festival presents lectures, exhibits, and other events featuring Korean culture and society.

Publications Available from the Department of Education

This publication is one of over 600 that are available from the California Department of Education. Some of the more recent publications or those most widely used are the following:

ISBN	Title (Date of publication)	Price
0-8011-0973-6	The American Indian: Yesterday, Today, and Tomorrow (1991)	$5.00
0-8011-0197-2	Basic Principles for the Education of Language Minority Students: An Overview (1983)	2.25
0-8011-0216-2	Bilingual-Crosscultural Teacher Aides: A Resource Guide (1984)	3.50
0-8011-0890-x	Bilingual Education Handbook: A Handbook for Designing Instruction for LEP Students (1990)	4.25
0-8011-0141-7	Bilingual Program, Policy, and Assessment Issues (1980)	3.25
0-8011-0874-8	The Changing History–Social Science Curriculum: A Booklet for Parents (1990)*	5.00/10
0-8011-0867-5	The Changing Language Arts Curriculum: A Booklet for Parents (1990)*	5.00/10
0-8011-0928-0	The Changing Language Arts Curriculum: A Booklet for Parents (Spanish Edition) (1991)*	5.00/10
0-8011-0777-6	The Changing Mathematics Curriculum: A Booklet for Parents (1989)*	5.00/10
0-8011-0891-8	The Changing Mathematics Curriculum: A Booklet for Parents (Spanish Edition) (1991)*	5.00/10
0-8011-0201-4	Desegregation and Bilingual Education—Partners in Quality Education: Conference Proceedings (1983)	4.25
0-8011-0856-x	English as a Second Language Handbook for Adult Education Instructors (1990)	4.50
0-8011-0041-0	English–Language Arts Framework for California Public Schools (1987)	3.75
0-8011-0927-2	English–Language Arts Model Curriculum Standards: Grades Nine Through Twelve (1991)	4.50
0-8011-0804-7	Foreign Language Framework for California Public Schools (1989)	5.50
0-8011-0287-1	A Guide for Bilingual Education Advisory Committees (1987)	3.25
0-8011-0249-9	Handbook for Planning an Effective Foreign Language Program (1985)	3.50
0-8011-0320-7	Handbook for Planning an Effective Literature Program (1987)	3.50
0-8011-0824-1	Handbook for Teaching Cantonese-Speaking Students (1989)†	4.50
0-8011-0909-4	Handbook on California Education for Language Minority Parents—Portuguese/English Edition (1990)‡	3.25
0-8011-0712-1	History–Social Science Framework for California Public Schools (1988)	6.00
0-8011-0227-8	Individual Learning Programs for Limited-English-Proficient Students (1984)	3.50
0-8011-0843-8	Language Census Report for California Public Schools, 1989 (1990)	NC

* The price for 100 booklets is $30.00; the price for 1,000 booklets is $230.00. A set of one of each of the parent booklets in English is $3.00.

† Also available at the same price for students who speak Japanese, Pilipino, Portuguese, and Korean.

‡ The following editions are also available at the same price: Armenian/English, Cambodian/English, Chinese/English, Hmong/English, Japanese/English, Korean/English, Laotian/English, Pilipino/English, Samoan/English, Spanish/English, and Vietnamese/English.

ISBN	Title (Date of publication)	Price
0-8011-0892-6	Literature for History–Social Science, Kindergarten Through Grade Eight (1991)	$5.25
0-8011-0358-4	Mathematics Framework for California Public Schools (1985)	3.75
0-8011-0969-8	Not Schools Alone: Guidelines for Schools and Communities to Prevent the Use of Tobacco, Alcohol, and Other Drugs Among Children and Youth (1991)	3.25
0-8011-0974-4	Parent Involvement Programs in California Public Schools (1991)	6.00
0-8011-0847-0	Price List and Order Form for Bilingual-Bicultural and ESL Instructional Materials, 1990–1992 (1990)	3.00
0-8011-0352-5	Program Descriptions for Bilingual-Bicultural and ESL Instructional Materials (1984)	2.50
0-8011-0353-3	Program Descriptions for Foreign Language Instructional Materials (1984)	2.50
0-8011-0858-6	Readings for Teachers of United States History and Government (1990)	3.25
0-8011-0831-4	Recommended Literature, Grades Nine Through Twelve (1990)	4.50
0-8011-0863-2	Recommended Readings in Literature, Kindergarten Through Grade Eight, Addendum (1990)	3.00
0-8011-0745-8	Recommended Readings in Literature, Kindergarten Through Grade Eight, Annotated Edition (1988)*	4.50
0-8011-0911-6	Schools for the Twenty-first Century (1990)	3.75
0-8011-0870-5	Science Framework for California Public Schools (1990)	6.50
0-8011-0316-9	Selected References for Teaching English as a Second Language (1986)	3.25
0-8011-0234-0	Studies on Immersion Education: A Collection for U.S. Educators (1984)	4.25
0-8011-0846-2	Toward a State of Esteem	4.25
0-8011-0854-3	Toward a State of Esteem, Appendixes to (1990)	4.25
0-8011-0805-5	Visual and Performing Arts Framework for California Public Schools (1989)	6.00
0-8011-0887-x	Writing Assessment Handbook, Grade 8 (1990)	8.50

*Includes complimentary copy of *Addendum* (ISBN 0-8011-0863-2).

Orders should be directed to:

California Department of Education
P.O. Box 271
Sacramento, CA 95812-0271

Please include the International Standard Book Number (ISBN) for each title ordered.

Remittance or purchase order must accompany order. Purchase orders without checks are accepted only from governmental agencies. Sales tax should be added to all orders from California purchasers. Stated prices will be in effect through June, 1993, and include shipping charges to anywhere in the United States.

A complete list of publications available from the Department, including apprenticeship instructional materials, may be obtained by writing to the address listed above or by calling (916) 445-1260.

90-43 003-0073-91 10-91 300 3M
91 82469